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Admiral Brownson's Resignation

The facts respecting the resignation of Admiral Brownson, so far as we can gather them from the published correspondence, are as follows: It has long been a question both in this and other countries whether hospital ships should be under the command of military or medical experts. The President, who is Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, decided that hospital ships in this country should be under the command of the medical expert. This decision was issued December 12, 1906; after it was made Admiral Brownson was appointed Chief of the Bureau of Navigation and entered on his duties. Whether he knew of the decision at that time the public is not informed. He sent either to the President or to the Secretary of the Navy a letter stating his reasons for thinking the decision prejudicial to the service. This letter has not been made public. The decision, however, was not rescinded, and he thereupon resigned. The ground of his resignation was thus stated by him:

> It is absolutely essential that I should have the confidence of the service at large, as well as that of higher authority. The efficiency of the fleet can only be maintained when the officers and men feel that the Chief of the Bureau of Navigation has the confidence of the Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy, and when a strong military spirit exists in the service. Anything that shows a lack of confidence, or that tends to break down this military spirit, which has been the safeguard and principal asset of the navy since its beginning, can but impair such efficiency.

His resignation was accepted, and another person was appointed in his place. This should have ended the incident, but it did not. A little over a week later the President wrote to the Secretary of the Navy a letter, which has since been given to the public, in which he severely castigated Admiral Brownson for "tendering his resignation because he did not agree with the President and the Department regarding an order issued before he came into the Bureau by the Secretary of the Navy as to the control of the hospital ships," and implying that the cause of this resignation was "personal pique, wounded vanity, or factional feeling on behalf of some particular Bureau or organization." He also took this occasion to rebuke sharply unnamed navy officers for criticising the Department either directly or by "supplying sensational material to some service or non-service newspaper." If Admiral Brownson had refused to issue orders of his superior officer and resigned to avoid doing so, he might properly be called to account for the failure, though even in that case he would have been entitled to be heard in his own defense. But neither his letter nor the President's indicates any such refusal. And if he differed from the Administration on what he regarded as a matter of vital importance to the well-being of the navy, we fail to see why he should not resign and leave that policy to be carried out by those who believed in it. It is certain that he ought not to be publicly rebuked for such resignation without being heard in his own defense, and that unworthy motives ought not to be imputed to him without evidence to sustain the imputation, and no such evidence has been given to the public. The President's course has created a widespread sympathy for Admiral Brownson, and, by raising a personal issue, has had the effect to obscure the real and important issue respecting the administration of hospital ships.

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Hospital Ships

The Outlook has already expressed its conviction that hospital ships should be under the command of a medical, not of a naval,

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expert. A second letter of the President to the Secretary of the Navy confirms this opinion. He states that certain ships in the British, German, Japanese, and Italian navies have already been commanded by medical officers—sometimes fleet surgeons, sometimes Red Cross surgeons; that at the close of the Civil War in 1865 hospital boats were placed exclusively under the control of the medical department; that in the Spanish-American War certain specified hospital ships were placed under the command of army surgeons; that any other course in time of war results in very serious if not disastrous consequences; that a hospital ship commanded by a navy officer cannot claim neutrality; that the naval officer is strongly tempted to violate neutrality and use his ship for military purposes, and several instances are given in which this has been done. On the main issue we believe the common sense of the country will be with the President. We regret very much that the irritable tone of his letter respecting Admiral Brownson will make the carrying out of this policy more difficult. It should be added that Admiral Brownson has made the best possible defense to the President's charge by maintaining absolute and unbroken silence.

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Railway Liability to Employees

The Supreme Court of the United States has decided that the recent Act of Congress rendering inter-State common carriers liable for injuries to their employees is unconstitutional; but this decision is by no means so discouraging to those who believe in the essential justice of such legislation as certain of the newspapers would have their readers believe. This law provides that any common carrier engaged in inter-State commerce "shall be liable to any of its employees" for such injuries; that "the fact that the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery where his contributory negligence was slight and that of the employer gross in comparison;" and that "all questions of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury." The two main Constitutional objections to this act were: (1) That the clause of the Constitution giving the Federal Government power to regulate commerce between the States does not confer any power to regulate the relations between the employer and the employed; (2) that the clause of the statute giving a right of recovery to "any employee" is unconstitutional because it extends to employees who might be engaged in employment having no inter-State relations, as in a factory or workshop within the State or on a local trolley line owned by an inter-State railway but doing no inter-State business. The Court are unanimously of the opinion that the power of the Federal Government extends only to inter-State commerce and to those employees who are engaged in inter-State commerce. Judges White, Day, and Moody are of the opinion that in the exercise of that power it may regulate the relations of employer and employed in so far as the latter are engaged in inter-State commerce. Judge Peckham expresses doubt, and Judges Fuller and Brewer are noncommittal upon that point; Judges White, Day, Peckham, Fuller, and Brewer hold that as the statute is worded it endeavors to hold the inter-State railway liable for all injuries inflicted on employees, whatever their employment, and is therefore unconstitutional; and Judge Moody dissents on the ground that the law is Constitutional so far as relates to those employees who are engaged in inter-State commerce, and the Court can and should make the discrimination, because it should assume that Congress intended such discrimination. The net result is that the only principle absolutely decided is that Congress has no power to render an inter-State railway liable for injuries to employees not engaged in its inter-State business; but the indications are that it would hold that Congress has the power to render it liable to such employees as are engaged in its inter-State business, and Senator Knox has already introduced a new bill providing for such liability "to any person employed by such carrier in such commerce while such employee is engaged therein." The present law has been adjudged unconstitutional, not because the fundamental

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principle embodied in it is wrong, but because it has not been expressed with what the Court regards as necessary limitations.

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The Practical Regulation of Railways

Those who regarded the Hepburn Act, giving larger powers to the Inter-State Commerce Commission, as a destructive measure aimed at the prosperity of the railways, will find in the twenty-first annual report of the Commission good ground for declaring the law to be ineffective. The law has not destroyed the railways; the Commission has not wrought disaster. The Commission, indeed, more than once testifies that it has found the carriers disposed to co-operate with it. The enormous amount of work involved in the duties of the Commission may be faintly indicated by some figures from the report. During the year there were over five thousand complaints; of these the 415 formal complaints related directly to 2,236 carriers; 359 petitions for reparation have been served on 2,500 carriers. This involved more than fifteen thousand letters and notices, besides general correspondence—the number of letters have averaged 218 for each working day. At the 276 hearings, 35,000 pages of testimony were taken. Of informal complaints there were over four thousand, as compared with about five hundred in 1905. With the Commission have been filed over two hundred thousand tariff publications and about four hundred thousand notices of concurrence. There have been 171 cases involving over seven hundred violations of the statute regarding safety appliances alone. On the whole, the Commission reports great improvement in transportation conditions. A great many cases have been settled without resort to the Commission. The facilities of the carrier still lag far behind the general commercial development of the country. The one suggestion by the Commission regarding the fixing of rates is that the Commission be given authority to prohibit advance of rates without a hearing. This is a subject too big to be discussed here. The suggestion is notable, however, and is not without the support of significant facts. The decisions of the courts during the year have almost uniformly supported the Commission. They have established these principles: That complaint should be made, first, not to a court, but to the Commission; that the findings of fact on the part of the Commission are to be regarded as *prima facie* true; and that it may be reasonable to require a railway to render a particular service at a loss. There are other interesting court decisions cited. The Commission is engaged in the huge task of preparing a code to avoid complications and contradictions in rate schedules. Apart from the question of rates, the Commission's work has been multiform. It has been engaged in establishing uniformity for bills of lading, for classification of merchandise, and for a system of accounts; in conducting investigations—specifically into the express companies, into the transportation of coal and oil, and into the affairs of the Union Pacific; in considering peculiar cases involving passes; in the study of safety devices; in the enforcement of the law for safety to employees; and in recording accidents. In protecting property, legislation in regulation of inter-State commerce has made great advance. In protecting life it is shamefully defective. The record of casualties on trains in the United States is, as the Commission says, regarded by conservative judges as "a world-wide reproach to the railroad profession in America." Accidents are increasing in a way that is enough to alarm the most phlegmatic. In 1905, 350 passengers were killed in train accidents; in 1906 the number fell to 182; in 1907 it shot up to 410. The total number of passengers and employees killed in 1907 on the railways by all causes was five thousand; the total injured was over seventy-six thousand. The question whether such slaughter should increase ought not to be left to be determined by the railways. Even if it is cheaper to kill people than to install safety appliances and establish discipline that will save their lives, the Government should exercise its authority for the protection of citizens. We hope that Congress will

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establish a Bureau of Railway Accidents, under some department of the Federal Government, that will have the same kind of power concerning safety in travel that is exercised now by the Public Service Commissions of the State of New York, which have the authority to investigate accidents and to order remedies.

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Emergency Currency

The general public demand for an emergency currency and for some immediate simple and effective Federal legislation to provide such a currency has been recognized by the introduction in the United States Senate of a new currency bill by Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island. This bill, if enacted into law, will enable any National bank, which already has a bond-secured circulation of not less than fifty per cent and a cash surplus of not less than twenty per cent of its capital stock, to issue additional circulation based upon what are generally known as approved savings bank securities. The Comptroller of the Currency, the Treasurer of the United States, and the Secretary of the Treasury are to constitute a board to decide whether business conditions justify the issuance of this emergency circulation by the bank or banks which have the necessary securities, and to determine the time of issue and fix the amount. Except that the total amount of National bank notes issued by any given bank, whether secured by United States bonds or by the special collateral, shall not exceed the amount of the unimpaired capital and surplus of the bank, and except further that this new emergency circulation shall at no time exceed $250,000,000 for all the National banks of the country, discretionary powers are left with the United States Comptroller, the United States Treasurer, and the Secretary of the Treasury for the regulation of the new issue. Senator Aldrich's bill defines the general character of the State, municipal, and railway bonds which shall form the basis of this emergency circulation. A tax of six per cent upon the notes thus issued is imposed, which it is believed will lead the banks to retire this special circulation as soon as the emergency is passed. It is quite apparent that when a bank cannot earn six per cent upon its emergency notes it will not continue them at a loss. The notes are to be guaranteed by the Government, and will in all respects correspond in character and appearance to the present National bank notes. So far Senator Aldrich's bill seems to have been received with approval by both bankers and merchants and other business men. We include farmers in the term business men, since they, particularly in the West, have need of special amounts of currency at special seasons of the year. The only criticism of any moment which has been so far made on the measure is that it may possibly give an artificially high market value to the bonds which are selected as the security for the emergency circulation. The same objection, however, is made to the present bond-secured National bank currency, as it is undoubtedly true that Government bonds could not be sold to the general investor, bearing the low rate of interest they do when purchased by the banks as a basis for bank notes.

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Advantages of the Aldrich Plan

The Outlook has already at some length expressed its views of the form that Federal financial legislation should take. It has pointed out that there are two objects to be attained by such legislation. First, an immediate remedy for emergencies; and, second, a possible permanent remodeling or improvement of our banking and currency system. The entire country recognizes the emergency which it has to meet practically twice every business year. That this emergency was greatly magnified during the months of October, November, and December last has misled some people into thinking that the commercial difficulties involved may not occur again for a period of years. As a matter of fact, they occur every spring and every autumn. In the spring merchants, manufacturers, and farmers are buying stocks of goods, raw materials, seeds, implements, and other merchandise necessary to their business. In the autumn the farmers of the great West are selling their crops, cattle, and hogs. For these trans-

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actions, which are rapidly and enormously augmented at these two periods of the year, an additional volume of universally circulating currency or money tokens is needed. If a time of financial panic happens to come at the same period, the circulating currency of the country, instead of expanding, actually contracts because of the hoarding by banks and individuals. There are many well-authenticated instances of Western cattle-breeders who declined as late as last December to supply Chicago packing-houses with the animals necessary to the packing business because they could not get in payment money tokens guaranteed by the United States Government and were unwilling to take other forms of promises to pay, although the packers' credit was gilt-edged. If the plan proposed by Senator Aldrich had been in operation then, the packers could have taken their approved bonds to the banks, the banks could have taken them to the United States Treasury, and the farmers would gladly have taken the Government-guaranteed notes which the packers could thus have given them. The Aldrich Bill seems to us simple, sensible, and effective. As it leaves wide discretion in the hands of three responsible Treasury officials, with a final veto power to be exercised by the Secretary of the Treasury, it cannot be claimed that the bill is framed in the interest or for the special advantage of the banks. It is a non-partisan measure, and, in our judgment, in substantially the present form should be passed at once. This will then leave the way clear for the appointment of a National Currency Commission to consider whether the currency, banking, and treasury system of the United States needs any fundamental and permanent modification.

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Secretary Taft on Capital and Labor

Secretary Taft delivered a most interesting and important address in New York on Friday of last week, on the subject of Labor and Capital. The address was made in the great auditorium of Cooper Union, which has been the scene of some very significant and momentous political and semi-political speeches in the past. Mr. Taft on this occasion spoke, not to a political association, but to an audience of the People's Institute—an audience composed, in a very large degree, of wage-workers and others in close sympathy with labor unions. In accordance with the custom of these meetings of the People's Institute, Mr. Taft followed his address by three-quarters of an hour of extemporaneous answers to written and verbal questions presented to him by the audience. There is hardly a platform in this country which puts a speaker to so good a test of his frankness, his quickness of mind, and his innate sympathy with justice and human rights. Mr. Taft met the test to the entire satisfaction of the audience. The great hall was packed, hundreds of people finding it impossible to get even standing room. Capital and labor, said Mr. Taft, are not enemies, but colleagues. They absolutely need each other. "What I am anxious to emphasize is that there is a wide economic and business field in which the interests of the wealthiest capitalist and of the humblest laborer are exactly the same:" He defended the right of the laborer to strike, and peacefully to persuade his fellow-laborer to strike. But he attacked the employment of violence by laborers in strikes, and reasserted his belief that injunctions may properly be employed by capital to prevent a resort to violence by labor. He, however, expressed his belief that this method of prevention by injunction had been abused in this country, and proposed to remove this abuse by returning to the original Federal law, which provided that no temporary injunction should be issued until the person or persons to be enjoined had been given notice and an opportunity to state their case. The courage with which he maintains the belief that he put into practice as a judge and the fairness to labor with which he now proposes an amendment to the law of injunction, in order to insure equal justice to labor and to capital, will, in our judgment, meet with the ultimate approval of organized labor throughout the country. His position appears to us to be logical, human, and practical. In his answer to questions Secretary Taft displayed his characteristic good humor, common sense,

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and thorough knowledge of the principles of law. Sometimes his answers were vigorously in favor of capital, sometimes as vigorously in favor of labor. The New York Sun, comparing this bout of question and answer to a boxing-match, gives the following graphic little picture of the contest:

"Now," said Mr. Taft, "I don't know exactly the rules of the game." There was a general roar at this, and he went on: "But I understand that your questions must all be germane to the subject under discussion. Is that one of your rules, or am I wrong?" "That's right!" shouted a score of voices. "Very well, then we'll start in," said the Secretary. But the questions covered about every department of public life and thought before they got through handing them up. So it went for the better part of an hour. There were many questions that couldn't be answered for lack of time, but it was the general verdict that the Secretary was entitled to the referee's decision, and when the gong rang the crowd swarmed into the ring to grasp the victor's hand.

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The Panic: Its Industrial Aspects

In his Cooper Union speech Secretary Taft made the following compact but entirely adequate statement of the causes of the recent financial panic:

We are suffering now from a panic. It was brought on, in my judgment, by the exhaustion of free capital the world over, by the lack of an elastic system of currency, and also by a lack of confidence in our business fabric produced in Europe through the revelations in certain great corporations of business dishonesty, corruption, and unlawfulness.

The acute stage of the panic has passed, but it has left certain industrial and commercial conditions in its train which it is wise at this time carefully to survey in order to determine what course to pursue in the future. With the bursting of the Heinze United Copper corner in October, and the runs on and suspensions of banks and trust companies in New York, Brooklyn, and Providence, began the acute money scarcity or famine, which before it had run its course caused the shutdown or the curtailment of operations of a vast number of the country's industrial plants—just how many would need a National census to determine. Another and most serious development of the currency shortage in its effect on the agricultural community, hitherto little affected by the year-long stringency, was the practical suspension for several weeks of the buying of grain, particularly of wheat and cotton. The farmer, used to cash payments for his products, for a time refused checks tendered, and the movement of the crops fell to very small proportions. Western coal-miners, mostly in Indiana and West Virginia, refused checks in payment of wages and even struck against accepting them. As November advanced the use of clearing-house certificates of small denominations, emergency currency as it really was, became well-nigh universal, but this was more generally used at large industrial centers, and in the West than at the East. As the working out of the system of protection by clearing house certificates developed, each city became walled off from the rest of the country, as it were, and the system of domestic exchanges collapsed. That is, it became impossible, because of the high cost of exchange, to remit money in payment for debts, and collections for account of merchandise already delivered fell to a very low point. Cases are well known of drafts between Western cities and New York costing $9 to $10 per thousand, and there were instances where New York exchange was practically unobtainable. Here was where the strain struck the average business house or manufacturing concern hardest. With little or no money coming in, with help to be paid, supplies to be purchased, and bank accommodation restricted, there ensued a curtailing tendency and a cancellation of orders which threatened to bring all business to a standstill. Fortunately, some large concerns took the position that they would accept deferred shipment of orders but would not take cancellations, and this prevented the panicky feeling from going too far. With the advent of December the feeling became more cheerful, though the shutting-down tendency in the iron and steel line was perhaps more marked, and the output of the cruder forms of iron in that month was cut to only about one-half that of October. This, of course, does not necessarily mean that the number of persons employed was at once reduced sev-

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enty-five per cent. The dullness in new demand in December was more noticeable than for many years past, and the pessimism in all lines, coupled with the difficulty of getting ready money, undoubtedly caused a falling off in the volume of late December trade, which also felt the effect of the rather mild weather upon ordinary retail demand for seasonable goods. Many department stores tried to offset this money scarcity by agreeing to give credit to purchasers of goods who could show that they had money in savings banks, affected by withdrawal clauses. Some of these department stores were, however, reported as discharging help just before the holiday trade began. In industry there were some very sharp reductions. For example, steam coal consumption in the Chicago district was reported to have fallen off fifty per cent from the average ruling before the last quarter, railway traffic fell enormously, and retrenchment and a general scaling down began, which was estimated to have reduced the number of workers in that city alone by 175,000.

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The Panic: Its Effect on the Year 1907

If the immense, almost feverish, activity of the early part of 1907 had been continued to the close of the year, all records of mine output, mill production, railway traffic, and consumption must have been broken. The rush of the first nine months, however, found a counterbalance as to production in the last quarter. Hence a rather irregular showing for the full year, where complete returns are available. Early immense iron ore output more than made up for decreases later, and the gain in 1907 over 1906 was easily ten per cent. Pig iron production felt the sharp reduction of November and December, but still fractionally exceeded 1906 in total output, after being at one time far ahead. Expenditures for new buildings throughout the country fell seven per cent from 1906, the record year in this respect. Other lines showing shrinkage were those of shoe shipments, with a decrease of seven per cent; steel rail output fell below 1906, and railway building decreased five per cent from the year before, but gross railway earnings increased twelve per cent over 1906. Foreign trade touched new high levels in 1907, and it might be added that the collapse of prices of commodities caused by the panic rather benefited our export trade, which, indeed, in November surpassed all records, while imports, particularly of luxuries, were very sharply reduced. There were fewer strikes and strikers in 1907 than for many years past. With the passing of the year 1907 and the completion of the large annual dividend payments, there ensued a period of much easier money, the banks of many cities resumed payments in currency, emergency checks and scrip began to be retired, and the end of the first week of January saw money easy, financial affairs pretty much on an even keel, a consequent improvement in the tone of trade, many previously canceled orders reinstated, and collections considerably better. However, business, as a whole, is still rather restricted, new orders are small, railway earnings are declining, thousands of empty cars are on sidings, where a year ago there was an actual scarcity, and industry, despite numerous resumptions, is reported dull in comparison with recent years, and in a condition of quiet not approached since the depression of 1903–4.

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The Panic: Its Effect on Labor

There are, of course, no statistics of idleness in mill and factory forces comparable with, say, the depressed time 1903–4. That the number of those idle is enormously larger than at any other time in the past three or four years seems certain, despite the emigration which is estimated to have taken 500,000 persons out of the country since the autumn of 1907. On every side one finds evidence of reduced production, and presumably the number of persons unemployed is very large. One estimate, for instance, of the number idle in the building trades at New York is 50,000 out of 100,000 usually employed. In addition, there are said to be 100,000 unemployed union men in the greater city. In the Connellsville coke region only one-third of

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the ovens are in operation, and presumably there are 12,000 out of 20,000 men in this industry idle. If the number of persons employed in the iron and steel trade and allied metal-working trades had been restricted correspondingly as the pig iron output was reduced in the last quarter of 1907, one might easily estimate 300,000 out of 600,000 employees idle; but, as above intimated, this system of applying proportions of tonnage idle to persons employed is misleading and really futile. In bituminous coal the production is being restricted, but no figures of employment of the 300,000 persons in this line are to be had. The lumber industry, which employed 475,000 persons in 1905, is very much depressed, the number of men in the woods is smaller this winter than for many years, and the Southern output of yellow pine and cypress is greatly cut down. So the story goes throughout the entire roll of the country's industries, and no real approximation of idleness in trade and industry is possible; but the encouraging fact may be easily deduced that the suspension is not so widespread as it was in the period of trade and industrial paralysis in November and December. There is another after-effect of the panic and succeeding paralysis that as yet can only be spoken of as largely in the future. That is the inevitable readjustment of wages of labor forced by changed conditions of cost of manufacture and of subsistence and by the increase in the floating supply of labor. So far, few announcements of reductions of wages are reported, but it might be noted that a quiet movement along individual lines and to meet individual cases has been in progress for over a month. Just at present the lowering tendency in wages is perhaps best illustrated in the iron and steel, coke, and kindred lines. Compensations are found, however, in the more healthful and sane attitude of the country towards general business. Over-production, over-trading, over-sanguine promotion, and feverish speculation have ceased. Reasonable caution and economy have been introduced. With a proper regulation of corporations and finance The Outlook expects that after this panic there will follow a period of more general and genuine prosperity than the country has known for some time.

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Merit or Political Patronage in the Census?

The next United States census will be taken in the year 1910, and it may seem rather early to talk about it, but in point of fact census-work is going on all the while, and an immense amount of preparation is needed before the actual taking of the census begins. It will be necessary, in addition to the large permanent force, to appoint at least four thousand employees, and the question arises, How shall these men be appointed—to please a great number of professional politicians who would like jobs for their adherents, or to secure the best possible results? Last week President Roosevelt sent a brief but cogent message to the House of Representatives, urging them to take such measures as would secure in the next census such tests of fitness for the clerical employees as would relieve the work from the "taint of the spoils system." It is not quite certain that the President has the right to require competitive examinations under the rules of the Civil Service Commission, although it is held by many that he could do so; it is certain, however, that Congress may require that the new appointments shall be made only after competitive examination under the rules of the Civil Service Commission. Nothing is needed to prove the desirability of this action beyond the President's exposition of the deplorable results of the non-competitive examination used in selecting the census officers at Washington for 1890 and 1900. Examinations, the President declares, were used only "as a cloak to hide the nakedness of the spoils system," and were useless as checks upon political patronage. The result of such examinations is summed up by the President as follows: "They prevent the most incompetent from being appointed, but they do not secure the appointment of the most competent, and they afford no check upon political appointments." The positive assertion is made, moreover, that the great majority of the clerical

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employees for the last two censuses were far below average ability, and that only half of them could pass the competitive examinations under the Civil Service rules. Comment seems not needed after this statement, and The Outlook can only join in urging that Congress apply the merit system for the next census.

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An Interesting Test Vote

Several months ago The Outlook reported the results of a straw ballot on the Republican Presidential nomination taken by the Chicago Tribune among Republican Congressmen, legislators, editors, and other party leaders in the Middle West. In that canvass an overwhelming majority indorsed the progressive policies of President Roosevelt; while only a slightly smaller number expressed their desire for a progressive successor. Secretary Taft received over four times as many votes for first choice for the nomination as any other candidate, while Governor Hughes showed unexpected strength as a second choice. The Tribune has now extended the canvass to the rest of the country, and publishes a summary of the preferences of about forty-five hundred Republican leaders. The majority in favor of the President's progressive policies is still enormous, over four thousand approving them, while only about three hundred and fifty disapprove. About thirty-six hundred want a progressive successor. Secretary Taft is the first choice of over twenty-five hundred voters, the second choice of eight hundred and thirty, and the third choice of nearly three hundred. His nearest competitor for first choice is Governor Hughes, with six hundred and sixty-six votes; but Mr. Hughes is the second choice of over fifteen hundred, and the third choice of seven hundred. Only one other candidate receives as many votes for first choice as Mr. Taft does for third choice—Senator Foraker, with three hundred and thirty-five votes. Mr. Taft is not only the first choice of sixty per cent of the voters, but he is the first choice in every State except those which have a favorite son, like New York, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, and he is, moreover, the second choice of each of these "favorite son" States. Straw ballots generally have little real value, but this canvass was so extensive and thorough as to make its results worth reporting.

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The New Jersey Railway Tax Law Sustained

A very important decision was handed down from the New Jersey Court of Errors and Appeals last week. As our readers will remember, the New Jersey Legislature a year ago or more passed, and the Governor signed, a law designed to compel the railways to pay a fair proportion of the State taxes—not upon the franchises or privileges owned by the railways, but upon their actual property situated in the State. Formerly, it is estimated that the total revenue to the State from railway taxes upon what is known as their main stems was about a million dollars a year, while under the new law the railways would pay on this class of property alone about three million dollars yearly. By the main stem is meant the strip of land owned by the railway, upon which the lines are constructed, in its entire length as contained in the State. This is real estate as truly as the farmer's wheat-field. It was proposed by some reformers that each town should tax that portion of the main stem within its own limits, just as it taxes any other property, but the Perkins Law does not go as far as this; instead, it fixes an average State tax rate on the whole main stem, and the tax is collected by the State, which in turn distributes the greater part of it to the towns for their school funds. The decision just passed upholds this legislation as regards the main stem, and the towns, which have been waiting for over a year to receive the funds already raised from this tax but withheld from them because of litigation, will now presumably be paid. Another kind of property owned by the railways is known as second class, and consists of actual property, apart from the main stem, situated in the various towns. This kind of property under the law was to be valued by the local assessors, but that provision of the law is pronounced unconstitutional by the decision

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of the Court, and the valuation for second-class railway property also will be made by the State Board of Assessors, although the rate of taxation of this kind of property will be in each case that prevailing in the individual municipality. The State and the people of New Jersey may be congratulated on this decision, which sets the seal of the highest judicial power of the State upon the principle of compelling the railways to sustain their proper part of the burden of taxation. When it is said, in reply to the demand that railways should pay taxes on property as do other corporations and individuals, that they render such public service that they should be treated tenderly as regards taxes, the reply is obvious: they do render such public service, but in requital therefor the public bestows upon them franchises and privileges of enormous value, so that for them to ask for relief from taxes also is to demand to be paid twice over for the same thing.

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The Harden Trials

The Outlook has said nothing about the charges brought by a German editor, Maximilian Harden, against a number of men prominent in German court circles, anong them Count Kuno von Moltke and Prince zu Eulenburg. These charges were too scandalous to be in any way indicated in the columns of a decent newspaper. The charges not only affected the character of the persons accused, but affirmed that they had constituted a kind of kitchen cabinet, or "Camarilla," and had again and again given the Emperor misleading information and had exerted a very unfortunate influence over him. Count von Moltke brought a civil suit against Harden for alleged injuries to his reputation. The case aroused intense interest throughout Germany, and indeed throughout Europe; and in spite of the unspeakable nature of the charges, the testimony was widely reprinted, and much more frankly, it may be said in passing, than would have been possible for the yellowest journalism in this country. Harden was acquitted, and the plaintiff was sentenced to pay the cost of the suit. Taking into account the exalted political position of the accused, and the great respect in which the Imperial court is held in Germany, this action of a German judge was regarded as sustaining the high character of the German courts for independence. A criminal suit was then brought by the public prosecutor, at the instigation of Count von Moltke and his associates, on the charge that Harden had committed an offense against public morals. On this trial the same witnesses appeared as on the former trial, but a great change had taken place in their memory of the transactions to which they had testified on the first trial. They either contradicted or repudiated their former statements to such a degree that their evidence was discredited and Harden's defense was broken down. Harden was found guilty and sentenced to four months' imprisonment. What changed the attitude of the witnesses is a matter of guesswork. It has been charged that their change of front was due to very powerful influences brought to bear upon them. However this may be, Harden has undoubtedly effected his purpose. He has seriously discredited a group of men who formed a kind of irresponsible Cabinet, and he has probably destroyed whatever influence they possessed with the Emperor. The latter was greatly scandalized both by the charges and the evidence which sustained those charges. He has undoubtedly made an investigation on his own account. If Count von Moltke and his associates are not restored to favor, the public will understand that, while they have been formally acquitted, the charges against them have been substantially proved and they have been dismissed in disgrace from public life. It is quite certain that, whether or not Harden's charges were true in detail, there was considerable flame behind so much smoke, and substantial good has undoubtedly been effected by the trials.

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Extremists vs. Moderates in India

The National Congress in India has become increasingly representative of the Empire. As one looks down upon the assembled body, its members' turbans of many shapes, tex-

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tures, and colors symbolize the many states, communities, and castes which compose the total Indian population of three hundred millions. But the high, low, flat, circular, tricorn turbans, in their various solid or variegated colors, also typify the Oriental prejudices to be welded into harmonious nationalism and adjusted to democratic ideals. The Congress certainly foreshadows an embryo parliament. It has become such a fixed annual institution that the unruly scenes attending its opening this year attract special attention. The principal note of excitement was struck by the appearance of a native agitator, Laj-pat-Raj, whose deportation earlier in the year was deemed necessary by the Indian Government, but whose release was lately ordered. The roads through which he passed were strewn with garlands, the horses were taken out of his carriage and it was drawn from the railway station three miles to the Congress camp. When the two thousand delegates and other thousands of onlookers assembled, the Bande Mataram—words meaning politically "Hail, Motherland!"—was sung—that invocation to the goddess of Kalikut which has become a hymn of patriotism. After the address of welcome, the gathering proceeded to the appropriate election as President of Dr. Ghose, a distinguished native lawyer. The subsequent turbulence arose between a small but noisy body of Extremists and a large but less noisy body of Moderates. The disturbance was not altogether unexpected. Since the previous meeting of the Congress serious things have happened in various parts of India. The recent partition of Bengal into two provinces and the alleged throttling of Indian trade there through British competition led to a boycott of British goods; in the Punjab the settlement of a new population on irrigated land led to such unrest that even the army was reported to be affected; in the Madras presidency the thrashing of an Indian by an army doctor led to a long-continued riot. To crown all, the Seditious Meetings Act has met with general opposition from the natives. But there are deeper causes of unrest. Despite the benefits conferred upon India by England in abolishing slavery, reducing religious feuds and class distinctions, establishing courts of justice, and initiating a common language, the National Congress this year, as every year, protested against the oppressive or inadequate administration of certain governmental departments—taxation, military control, the courts, civil service, irrigation, and education. But in the general protest there were clearly distinguishable the two voices characteristic of the two classes which exist wherever human nature exists, extremists and moderates, doctrinaires and practical people. The Extremists, avowed advocates of sedition and violent rebellion, have been considerably strengthened by the recent speeches in India of Mr. Keir Hardie, the Labor Socialist member of Parliament. But their plans for national independence are vague and indefinite, if grandiose. On the other hand, the Moderates have definite, practical measures for a greater measure of self-government, many of which have, fortunately, already found favor with the British people as a whole.

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Professor Young

A long and fruitful life, distinguished for service to pure science and for teaching ability as well, was ended by the death of Professor Charles A. Young at his home in Hanover, New Hampshire, where he had been living since his retirement from the professorship of astronomy in Princeton University two years ago. The son of a Dartmouth college professor, and born in Hanover, Professor Young graduated from college at the head of his class, taught for a time in Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, was captain of a company of men who volunteered from Western Reserve University in 1862, and while in service near Vicksburg suffered an impairment of health from which he never fully recovered. He held the professorship of Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Astronomy in Western Reserve University from 1857 to 1866, that of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in Dartmouth from 1866 until 1877, and that of Astronomy at Princeton from 1877 until 1905. He took part in many astronomical expedi-

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tions. The services which he rendered during the observation of an eclipse in Spain in 1870 secured for him the Janssen medal from the French Academy of Sciences. Four years later he observed the transit of Venus from Peking, China. He devised an automatic spectroscope which is in common use, made special and fruitful studies of the solar spectrum and solar prominences, developed a method of calculating the velocity of the sun's rotations, was honored by membership in a long list of philosophical and scholarly societies, wrote a number of popular books on astronomy, contributed generously to scientific publications, and, in addition to his work in Princeton, was one of the most popular lecturers on scientific subjects in the country. On his retirement from Princeton a loving-cup was presented to him on which were inscribed the words: "I know I am mortal and the creature of a day. Yet when I search the close-set whirling circles of the stars, no longer do I stand with feet upon the earth, but, seated with Jove himself, I take my fill of the breath of heaven."

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An Old Church Transformed

By a very simple expedient, Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, has been transformed from a very plain, not to say homely, auditorium into a dignified and beautiful though still very simple house of worship. A porch in harmony with the severe simplicity of this Puritan meeting-house has taken the place of the old storm-house, and gives a worthy entrance to the church; and within a series of pictured memorial windows admits the sunlight, gives artistic beauty, and furnishes the room with a Puritan atmosphere, all of which were before lacking. All the pictures portray scenes in the history of the Puritan Church, and represent pictorially certain fundamental Puritan principles. The eight side windows above the gallery are in place; and below the gallery eight windows with similar themes are to be added, though in these lower windows account will be taken of the Baptist, the Dutch, the Quaker, the Cavalier, and the Huguenot in their influence on American life. Of the three windows opposite the pulpit, one will be occupied by a portrait of Mr. Beecher; the subjects of the other two are not yet announced. In two respects these windows are, so far as we know, unique. One harmonious and comprehensive plan has been adopted, and while the donor of any window is at liberty to select from this plan the design which pleases him, no donor is permitted to form his own design. As a consequence, the whole church will be pictorially a unit. And all the pictures are human, not ecclesiastical, and modern, not ancient; no one of them goes back of the early English Puritan age, the age of Cromwell, Hampden, and Milton.

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A Unique Church Symbolism

The picture scheme was very well put before the men's annual supper of Plymouth Church by the designer in an informal address last week. He said that it was universally recognized that the modern church was not meeting modern needs. To meet them it must become modern in its architecture and its symbolism. The modern man was not interested in ecclesiastical symbolism; it meant nothing to him. To abolish all symbolism and give plain walls and plain windows was little better, for mere negation attracts no one. We need, he said, a symbolism which appeals to modern life and brings a message to which the modern man will listen. The speaker instanced the window representing John Hampden appealing for the Bill of Rights, and that representing John Milton pleading for the liberty of the press, the one bringing the message of political liberty, the other of liberty of the press, both threatened by enemies in our time as dangerous as those which threatened in the time of Charles I., and more subtle. He said truly that the Puritan churches recognized the value of music as a means of promoting the spirit of worship, and he believed that the time was not far distant when they would equally recognize a like value in color. Thus three qualities characterize this successful attempt to enrich this famous Meeting-House with-

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out sundering its associations with the past: unity of design, modern symbolism, spiritual values. If we are not mistaken, the credit of originating the plan is due to Dr. Hillis, the present pastor of the Plymouth Church. He has been ably supported in carrying it through by the Church and especially by the Board of Trustees; the execution of the design has been intrusted to Mr. Frederick Stymetz Lamb, who has wisely been given freedom to work out his designs without interference from individual donors, with, as a result, a harmony, both æsthetic and symbolic, which otherwise could not have been attained. We are not surprised to be told that these windows, while they were yet in the studio, were visited by thousands, and it is certain that they will be visited by many thousands more now that they are in place. They are well worth study by all who believe or wish to believe that it is possible to combine beauty with simplicity, and symbolic significance with human feeling, in our modern houses of worship.

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A Poor Play; a Good Actor

The success of "A Grand Army Man," now being played at the Stuyvesant Theater in New York City, is due entirely to the acting of Mr. Warfield, who in this play, as in "The Music Master," overshadows everybody else on the stage and creates a new rôle. The play is so slight as to do little more than reawaken the sentiment of gratitude for the men who faced the perils of the Civil War, and to present the outlines of a character which Mr. Warfield fills in and vitalizes with his unaffected and beautiful art. The pathos of a great memory, cherished by a diminishing number of men, invests the homely setting of this little story with deep human interest. It is wholesome to be reminded of the debt which the country owes to the men who preserved its integrity a generation ago. It is not ingratitude, but the preoccupation of other problems and duties, that sometimes relegates the men and events of the great crisis of the Civil War into the land of forgetfulness. No one, however, can come in contact with that heroic struggle in any of its worthy survivors without realizing the dignity and greatness of the tradition of heroism. Not long ago the President of a leading college, who had seen service in the Federal Army, was suddenly reminded, by a reference to the day of the month, that it was the anniversary of the march of his division to Richmond; and as he recalled this great memory he rose from his chair and tears came into his eyes as he named one after another of his comrades. Mr. Warfield, who is as unaffectedly and simply human as was Mr. Jefferson, succeeds, as did Jefferson, in vitalizing the thinnest of plays into an appealing drama, and furnishes another illustration of the perfection of his art in the field which he has chosen to make his own. The play is much less interesting than "The Music Master." It has not the same contrasts; it does not overflow with humor; it has more than one tragic situation, but the situations do not appeal in the same way to the audience. But Mr. Warfield's success is quite as marked in this as in his earlier play, and the drama, as he interprets it, belongs with the small group of plays that illustrate the finer qualities of human character.

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Plays for Children

A generation ago one of the pleasantest features of Christmas was the number of performances at the best theaters specially designed for children, but in which their elders found the joy of reminiscence and of present pleasure as well. Those performances have, for some reason, been given up. The pantomime is no longer followed with eager faces; Pantaloon, Harlequin, and Columbine are seen no more on the metropolitan stage. This is the more surprising because London still delights at the Christmas season in telling the old stories in dramatic form, and presenting the old plays which have delighted generations of young hearts and imaginations during the holiday season. It is reported that twenty-two theaters in that city presented plays and pantomimes especially for children during holiday week, to say nothing of "Alice in Wonderland" and "Peter Pan," those modern classics which have

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already taken their place beside "Jack the Giant-Killer," "Puss in Boots," "Dick Whittington," "The Forty Thieves," and the venerable but never aged "Humpty Dumpty." Have American children outgrown the romances which delighted the children of earlier days, or are they too sophisticated to enjoy the simple tales which have been the delight of other centuries? For older people there was no greater pleasure than a theater crowded on a holiday afternoon with rosy-faced children, alive with expectation, watching intently every movement on the stage, and ready to make the theater ring with their laughter. It was enough to make one young. As an antidote for problem-plays and for the endless and melancholy repetition of the sex-theme, "Humpy Dumpty," "Sindbad the Sailor," and "Jack and the Beanstalk" would be an immense relief.

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The Committee of One Hundred

One of the largest and most enthusiastic of the sectional meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, recently held in Chicago, was the Symposium on Federal Regulation of Public Health, held by the Economic Section in conjunction with the Committee of One Hundred on National Health, and representatives from other great organizations. The opening address was by Professor William H. Welch, the retiring President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and in it he emphasized the importance of the movement conducted by the Committee of One Hundred. He described the existing neglect of health as shameful, and pointed out that, if existing hygienic knowledge were fully applied, the death rate might be cut in two. As examples of what a Federal Health Bureau might do he cited the work of Pasteur and Koch, whose best work was done for the national governments of France and Germany, though the benefits have been shared by all nations. In America we lack even the statistics of disease except in a limited area. Professor F. F. Wesbrook, the dean of the Medical School of the University of Minnesota, showed the need of Federal jurisdiction over railways and waterways, which carry diseases from one State to another, and showed that such jurisdiction would have prevented the Chicago-St. Louis controversy over the drainage canal. Mr. Edward T. Devine made a stirring speech, bringing home to the audience what a reduction in the death rate means in the concrete experience of the individual. The elimination of deaths from tuberculosis, even if the same number of deaths were added to the mortality from other diseases coming later in life, would lengthen the average life by twelve years. In the summer of 1906 Professor J. P. Norton, of Yale, read a paper before the Economic Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, on the Economic Advisability of a National Organization of Health, which excited much interest and resulted in the formation of the Committee of One Hundred. This Committee was first formally organized on April 18, 1907. Its officers at present are: President, Irving Fisher; Secretary, Edward T. Devine; Treasurer, Title Guarantee and Trust Company; Vice-Presidents, the Rev. Lyman Abbott, Miss Jane Addams, Dr. Felix Adler, President James B. Angell, the Hon. Joseph H. Choate, President Charles W. Eliot, Archbishop Ireland, the Hon. Ben B. Lindsey, Mr. John Mitchell, Dr. William H. Welch. In the following month (May, 1907) President Roosevelt sent the Committee a letter of indorsement in which he said: "Our national health is physically our greatest national asset. To prevent any possible deterioration of the American stock should be a national ambition. We cannot too strongly insist on the necessity of proper ideals for the family, for simple living, and for those habits and tastes which produce vigor and make men capable of strenuous service for their country. The preservation of national vigor should be a matter of patriotism. I can most cordially commend the endeavors of your Committee to bring these matters prominently before the public." There are now about six thousand five hundred persons on the various mailing lists of the Committee of One Hundred. The American Health League, the National society

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affiliated with the Committee of One Hundred, is growing with amazing rapidity—a fact significant of the popular interest in the movement. Every member of Congress has been written to, and a large number have expressed their willingness to advocate health measures. The first legislative measure will be one to authorize the President to redistribute the existing scientific and health bureaus of the Government. The recent unfortunate experience with the present arrangement of bureaus in the navy is only one of many instances of lack of co-operation and co-ordination. It is not anticipated that these existing bureaus will oppose a rearrangement. On the contrary, it is known that most of them favor it, especially as, after the redistribution, their powers and appropriations, as well as their efficiency, will be increased. The Committee has received the indorsement of the American Medical Association and of a number of other organizations engaged in the work of human betterment, including the American Association for the Advancement of Science itself, which at its recent meeting voted that hereafter the Committee should represent not only the Economic Section in which it originated, but the entire Association.

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Washington Schools

The Outlook has expressed no opinion, and does not propose to express any opinion, about the merits of the long and painful controversy which has been going on concerning the administration of public schools in Washington; but it is due to the school system of the capital of the Nation to say most emphatically that the matter cannot be settled by the discharge of Superintendent Chancellor. The controversy has been in the last degree painful. It has been needlessly complicated by the most intense personal feeling, and it has been conducted in many cases with a show of passion and an apparent absence of a desire to get at the facts which were peculiarly offensive in a controversy conducted by people interested in education and supposed, therefore, to set an example to the community in which they live. Washington is, in a sense, a strategical point. Its government is the National Government, and its affairs, therefore, concern the whole country. What is needed to put a stop to a discussion which has run to scandalous lengths, and has not been free from scandalous implication, is a thorough investigation by an independent committee, who will divest the matters at issue of all personal relations.

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Prettiness and Ugliness

If most artists consider only the beautiful, and some accentuate more or less mendaciously their æsthetic ideal, a certain group of American painters go to the opposite extreme. Declaring that the true observer of life, whether an artist or not, must consider all sides of life, they often emphasize the unlovely side. Sometimes, it is true, we see through the unlovely to the lovely. Where this appeal to the imagination is made, the new movement will be lasting; where it is not, the movement may be but fleeting. At all events, it is interesting to observe the work of certain so-called "secessionists," as shown at the National Arts Club, New York City. For the first time we have adequate opportunity of judging their merits and demerits, and, indeed, the varying phases of an individual's output, because of the commendable system of grouping the canvases of each exhibitor. In general, the pictures shown do credit to the plan of the National Arts Club directors in emulating the protest and accomplishment of Whistler two decades ago, when he gathered examples of modern work in an exhibition in London; from it sprang the International Society of Painters, Sculptors, and Gravers. While a goodly number of names are represented in the present exhibition, the chief interest lies in the work of the extremists. It is not altogether surprising that juries have consistently rejected some of their canvases. If earlier artists went to the extreme of prettiness and sentimentality, these, at times, certainly go to the extreme of ugliness. Most of their portraits are interesting because of their character of expression rather than because of their expression of character. We have, for example, the bitumen effects of Mr. Glackens, whose still life

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is so much better than his real life, and of Mr. Luks, whose specialty is the blunt and the forceful if flatly painted delineation of slum life; the cold impression, despite the warm colors used, of Miss Cassatt's brilliant but unpoetic portraits of the French *bourgeoisie*, and, in contrast, the rich figure-pieces of Mr. Henri; Mr. Boss's interesting portrait and the yet more interesting ones by Mr. Sloan, perhaps the most noteworthy among the "new" painters; finally, less remarkable for technique than for imagination, is the impressive portrait of Beethoven by Mr. Steichen, apparently the most many-sided of any exhibitor; for at this exhibition we see his work in portraiture, landscape, and photography; the members of the Photo-Secession appropriately show their charming work alongside the painters' canvases. In landscape we may contrast the peculiar achievements of the two Dabos with Mr. Kent's bold headlands and Mr. Mygatt's or Mrs. Coman's quiet pastures, above all with Mr. Lawson's "Morningside Heights," much of which might have been painted with a knife; its "staccato" touch, however, brings a striking realization of atmosphere. Altogether the exhibition is a noteworthy expression of independence as well as of rebellious irregularity in art.

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Justice to Corporations

Mr. Henry Lee Higginson contributes to the January Atlantic Monthly an interesting article on "Justice to Corporations." Mr. Higginson is well known both as a philanthropist and as a financier. His article is doubly entitled to consideration as a contribution to current discussion by a man eminent alike for business ability and for moral and intellectual culture, and as a representative of views current in a considerable and important section of the best American society. His article may be summarized as follows:

Corporations are essential factors in modern civilization, and have brought great benefits to the country. The extraordinary industrial development of the past hundred years is largely due to these corporations and to the men who have managed them. The managers have often been men of the highest moral character, of the first intellectual ability, of indomitable courage, and with a genius for enterprise. They have sometimes succeeded and sometimes failed; but their successes have often been purchased at the price of great self-sacrifice, and brought great prosperity to others who have sacrificed nothing. The Union Pacific Railway, the Northern Pacific Railway, the Bell Telephone Company, the United States Steel Company, the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railway, afford dramatic illustrations of these truths. To guard against the danger of monopoly which great corporations have been supposed to involve, the Sherman Anti-Trust Act was passed—an act loosely drawn, difficult to interpret, and unsatisfactory in its results. This law and the subsequent Elkins Act have been allowed to remain a dead letter. To enforce them now, particularly to punish past infractions of them, works great practical injustice. "The shareholders of these corporations have not sinned, yet they must suffer, because, as we are told, juries will not punish the officers and therefore they punish the corporations. The logic is bad; one cannot punish the son because the father has done wrong." Mr. Higginson's conclusion is that only future violations of the law should be punished, and only the officials, not the stockholders. He thus states it:

> Punish future violations of the laws by the corporations, but punish the officials and not the stockholders. If juries hesitate and fine the corporations, it is an act of great injustice; in short, it is an outrage. . . . Let bygones be bygones. Past offenses against laws which have not been diligently enforced may safely be regarded with leniency, for the offenders have perforce formed their habits of business long ago and have not believed that the Government really "meant it." Now they are sure that the Government "means it." The old Saturday night spanking for faults which the children may have committed without the knowledge of their parents has been given up. Let us begin anew, knowing that the corporations are to-day obeying the laws, and knowing also that the standards of honesty, honor, and fair dealing between man and man have been carefully studied and are higher than in the last century. We live in a busy day, and so let us

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busy ourselves with the future and try to fit our acts to the newer standards.

There is a great deal of truth in this article, and truth that needed to be said. But it is not all true and it is not the whole truth.

It is true that corporations are an essential factor in modern civilization. Perhaps the discovery that men can combine their capital in great industrial enterprises and share the profits has had as great and beneficial an influence on human welfare as the discovery of steam or electricity. But if steam-engines explode, society sees to it that they are put under control of licensed engineers; and if live overhead wires are perilous to life, they are put underground. So if the financial power which the corporation puts into the hands of a few men is used to the detriment of the many, society ought to take measures for self-protection. This is what society is now attempting to do. And in doing this its first duty is to compel the obedience of corporations to the law. It is idle for society to enact laws and then allow corporations, because they are useful, to set the laws at defiance. We do not believe in the wisdom of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act; but that is no reason why it should not be obeyed. We do not believe in our present protective tariff; but that is no reason why we should cheat the customs.

And there is only one way of enforcing the law against disobedient corporations—by fine, and by fines sufficiently heavy to make disobedience of law unprofitable. It is true that the franchise might be taken away and the corporation dissolved, but no one would advocate this form of capital punishment except for the most heinous offenses. Mr. Higginson has evidently performed very little jury service if he supposes that juries "hesitate" between fines and imprisonment or between fining this or that individual. Juries do not determine whether the punishment shall be a fine imposed on the corporation or imprisonment inflicted on the official. That is determined by the terms of the law and the nature of the legal proceeding. Mr. Rockefeller cannot be sent to jail because the Standard Oil Company has been adjudged guilty of illegal action. The courts have uniformly held that a man cannot be punished for a crime committed by his agent unless it be proved that he personally participated in the crime. The president of a railway can no more be sent to jail because a freight agent has granted a rebate than a woman can be sent to jail because her maid has stolen a jewel.

It is true that the great majority of corporations have been honestly managed, and their existence and operation have been of great benefit to the community; but it is also true that some of them have been dishonestly managed and their existence and operation have been a detriment to the community. Most of the generals in Washington's army were patriots, but that is no reason why Benedict Arnold should be allowed to escape. During all the early part of his career Benedict Arnold was a brave and honest soldier; but that is no reason why, when he turned traitor, he should go unpunished. Some corporations have fallen into the hands of gamblers and the property of the investors squandered; some of them have been fraudulently managed and the investors robbed; some of them have been managed in the interest of the investors but made instruments of oppression in the community. Purely technical violations of law by innocent parties acting in actual ignorance of the law or under a misconstruction of a law difficult to construe should be permitted to become bygones; but deliberate, persistent, and flagrant violations of law should not be permitted to become bygones. We do not condone a train wrecker because other train wreckers have gone unpunished; that past railway wreckers have been allowed to go unpunished is no reason why present railway wreckers should go free.

Society has called into existence, in its creation of corporations, a new power. Like all power, it is beneficial if it is rightly used, and dangerous and perhaps disastrous if it is wrongly used. It is the duty of society to see that this power which it has created is used for the general welfare. To do this it must provide laws adequate for its regulation, and it must enforce those laws, whatever

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suffering the enforcement involves. No suffering which law enforcement produces can equal the suffering which will be produced by allowing the spirit of lawlessness to go unchecked and acts of lawlessness to go unpunished. If innocent stockholders are allowed to profit by the lawless acts of the corporation, the lawless acts will be continued and the spirit of lawlessness will be encouraged. If the innocent stockholders suffer when the corporation becomes a lawbreaker, the innocent stockholders will combine with the rest of the community in insisting that corporations be law-abiding.

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Co-operation, Not Creed

We have received a letter from a correspondent who wonders how, if we believe in the divinity of Christ, we can advocate the admission of Unitarians to active membership in the Young Men's Christian Association. He says:

> What troubles me is this: The only record we have of Christ is the Gospel testimony, and that testimony speaks as clearly of his virgin birth and resurrection and of his miracles as it speaks of any other facts relating to them. He says: "I and my Father are one;" "No one cometh to the Father but by me;" "Destroy this temple, and in three days I will raise it up again." How, then, can you ask those who believe the Gospels through and through to permit others who deny the deity of Christ, deny the virgin birth—or, conversely, who refuse to believe in these great dignities of Christ—to associate as Christians?

In the Middle Ages the Church regarded those who did not believe in the standard interpretation of Christ's teaching as criminals, and demanded their punishment by the State; in the twentieth century some in the Church regard those who do not agree with the standard interpretation of Christ's teaching as sinners, and refuse to fellowship them. Religious persecution had its defense, if not its origin, in the first error; sectarianism has its defense, if not its origin, in the second error. The Baptist declares that Jesus Christ commanded adult baptism by immersion, and refuses church fellowship to those who do not accept and obey that command; the Calvinist declares that Jesus Christ taught that no man could come to him except the Father draw him, that this involves predestination and election, and he formerly refused fellowship with those who did not accept predestination and election. Similarly, our correspondent declares that Jesus Christ taught his own deity, and refuses fellowship with those who do not accept his interpretation of Christ's teaching.

All this grows out of the fundamental notion that men must be agreed in opinion in order to co-operate in action. But it is not necessary to agree in opinion in order to co-operate in action. It is necessary to agree in purpose but not in opinion. Loyalty to Christ is not the same as loyalty to the standard teaching of the Church respecting Christ. Every disciple of Christ has a right to study Christ's teaching for himself and give his own interpretation. All that any disciple of Christ has a right to demand of his fellow-disciple is that he shall be loyal to his own understanding of the Master. This is the reason why we urge the admission into the Young Men's Christian Association of all Christians whatever their creed. We are ready to co-operate with the Catholic who believes that Christ founded the Church, and with the Congregationalist who believes that Christ left his followers free to form their own churches; with the Baptist who believes that Christ taught adult immersion, and with the Pedo-Baptist who believes that Christ taught infant baptism; with the Calvinist who believes that Christ taught predestination, and with the Methodist who believes that Christ taught free will; with the Orthodox who believes that Christ taught that he and his Father are one, and with the Unitarian who believes that Christ taught that his Father is greater than he. In short, we are willing to co-operate in Christ's work with any man who calls himself a follower of Christ, and who is working in the spirit of Christ to make this world a better and a happier world. Only unity of purpose with diversity of opinion can give a united church. Co-operation, not creed, is the secret of church union.

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The New Oxford

The words "the new Oxford" are disturbing to those who know and love the old Oxford, the Oxford not only of traditionalism, toryism, and reactionary impulses, but of vital scholarship, of literary inspiration, and of that broad and generous culture which has given English writing and the best Englishmen a singular ripeness and quality of mind. One has only to look at the portraits of a group of English university preachers to be aware of a certain fineness of strength, refinement of energy, elevation and dignity which are the very flower of genuine education. The problem at Oxford is to increase the efficiency of the University, to make a more fruitful use of its great resources, to bring it more closely in touch with the needs of the time and the aspirations of young men of the twentieth century, without sacrificing the accumulation of eight hundred years of devotion to the intellectual life and an atmosphere which is in itself a liberal education. That it has been the home of lost causes does not involve a sweeping condemnation; for a lost cause—a devotion to a family, to a name, to a principle, or to a movement—which has involved forgetfulness of self-interest, of comfort and money, is far better than the indifference to the higher things, the dullness of emotion, the lack of sentiment, which bar some men alike from the dangers and from the rewards of adherence to causes and principles.

But Oxford has been the mother of progressive movements as well as of reactionary ones; of causes that have won or are winning as well as of causes that are lost. It was in Oxford that Wyclif read the Bible with the eye and the mind of a modern man; it was out of Oxford that Methodism went with the open Bible and the soul of fire in the dusty and prosaic religious life of the middle of the eighteenth century; it was in Oxford that the Tractarian movement had its rise, with its devoutness of spirit, its love of symbolism, its reassertion of the integrity and independence of the Church, mixed with other and less noble elements. There is something to be said, too, for a university which conserves the spirit of the past. Nothing could be more superficial from the educational point of view, or dry up more rapidly the sources of educational inspiration, than a perfectly "up-to-date school," as some people understand up-to-dateness: a school which has nothing to do with yesterday and therefore nothing to do with to-morrow, but concerns itself only with fitting men to do the work of this particular hour. For manual, mechanical, and practical training there is a great and increasing demand, which ought to be met and is being met on all sides in a normal and rational way—a demand which marks another great stage of educational development; but an education which trains men only to make a living, and does not fit them to make a life, would sap the very sources of inspiration and make a monotonous workshop of the modern world. The present is built on the past; and one of the chief uses of education is to show a man where the world of his time stands. The mischief of the half-educated man lies in his inability to make that adjustment. Every important idea must be seen in perspective; taken out of its relations it is as mischievous as the once prevalent idea that business is an activity by itself, without moral relationships. It is the function of a university not only to keep abreast of the times, but to keep in touch with that part of the past which lives in to-day, supplies its deeper impulses, and is the key to its greater movements.

One danger of modern education, under the pressure of the demand for skilled workmen, is the sacrifice of culture, with its breadth and ripeness and depth of knowledge, to discipline and instruction. In this age of trained men no sane person will question for a moment the necessity of the disciplined brain and hand. To them is already committed most of the work of the day, and to them, and to the nation that develops them, the future belongs. Nor will any sane man question the necessity of the education that gives knowledge; for to-day, not only in science, but in practical affairs, the fruits of prosperity are in the hands of those who can pluck them from the tree of knowledge. But

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a school or university might discipline and train men and yet be as bare of any inspirational influence, any refining quality, any power of stirring the soul, as the forest is bare of leaves when the winds of December sweep through it. In its richer sense, education is as much a matter of atmosphere as of definite instruction; and an enthusiasm for any kind of knowledge, shared by a group of undergraduates, is often more contagious and fruitful for educational purposes than the most thorough training in the class-room and the laboratory. Those who have read the delightful account which Mrs. Brookfield gives of the gifted young men who formed the Society of the Apostles at Cambridge when the Tennysons were in college could not fail to recognize the immense influence of such an association for the enrichment of the intellect and the liberation of the spirit. The criticism is made of Oxford that the facilities it offers for studying English are meager and inefficient. This is perfectly true; and yet it also remains true that Oxford is probably the most effective teacher of English in the world, not by reason of definite courses of study, of lectures or examinations, but because of the tradition and atmosphere of the place. The student who goes to Oxford hears the best English as well as reads it. It is a part of the teaching of every subject, as it ought to be and must be, if it is to be really imparted. Whatever else is taught or left untaught, the use of good English is enforced by unvarying habit; and those who read the best English writing of the day in any department of literature cannot but be struck by the ripeness of knowledge, the maturity of thinking, and the lucidity and purity of style which the best Englishmen command. These are the fruits of university education.

While Oxford needs, therefore, to be brought more closely in touch with modern life, it is to be hoped that the process of readjustment will be conducted, not by iconoclasts, but by broad-minded reformers. Mr. Rhodes looked on the modern world from the standpoint of English power and advantage; but he had great breadth of vision when he made the bequest for a large group of scholarships which should not only give the beneficiaries first-class opportunities for education, but make them also missionaries of Anglo-Saxon ideas. The advent of these young men has emphasized the need of larger provision for education at the old University, and of the rounding out of the scheme of instruction; and Lord Curzon, the new Chancellor, has set his hand to this work and is attempting to raise one million dollars in order to make it possible. His appeal is not to men of great wealth, but to the alumni of the University. Of this sum about one-fourth has already been secured, and a very thorough canvass is to be made to provide the remainder. There is a wasteful duplication of work at Oxford; too many young men make a playground of its beautiful surroundings; too much time, it is urged by the reformers, is given to making the work easy for idlers, and not enough for providing advanced courses for workers; the Bodleian Library, which is as inadequate in its arrangement as it is rich in its literary treasures, must be adapted to the use of students, and, through extensive changes and enlargements, is to be made a thoroughly convenient place for scholarly workers; facilities for learning and teaching chemistry and other branches of science must be greatly increased, and a much ampler provision made for work in arts and letters, history and languages; new buildings and additional professors are also required; the sum which the Chancellor proposes to use will really be but a drop in the bucket. Such changes as these are imperative at Oxford. They ought to be made without any sacrifice of the vital and priceless elements which the University contributes to English thought and life.

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A NOTE OF CORRECTION.—By a slip of the pen, in the title of the article "The Roosevelt Doctrine of a Strong Navy," printed in The Outlook last week, the author, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, was named as "President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Science." The correct designation is "The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching."

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A CITY IN THE LIFE-SAVING BUSINESS

HOW THE CITY OF CLEVELAND MAKES MEN OF ITS WORKHOUSE PRISONERS

BY FREDERIC C. HOWE

TWO years ago, in one of the joint debates which have become a feature in the local campaigns of Cleveland, it was charged by the candidate opposed to Mayor Johnson that the workhouse had failed to make money out of its prisoners during his administration. The answer came back: "We are not trying to make money out of prisoners; we are trying to make men."

This is the motive of Dr. Harris R. Cooley, who has been identified with the administration of Mayor Tom L. Johnson as Director of Charities and Correction during the past seven years. Mr. Cooley was formerly a minister of a Disciple church. He was also a recognized student of social problems. Whether he was or is a Democrat or a Republican I do not know. And nobody in Cleveland seems to care, for Mr. Cooley has so revolutionized the city's attitude towards its dependent classes that Cleveland has become much such a laboratory to those interested in this work as the city of Glasgow is to those who want to study municipal ownership.

To him the question has been: "What does society owe to its poor, its destitute, its weak, its friendless, its offending members? not, How will we get rid of them at the lowest cost and with the least trouble? Have we a right to so punish the boy and the man, the girl and the woman, that our punishment leaves them more hopeless, more vicious, than they were before? Is it just to annihilate self-respect by placing on every offender a brand of shame that years of effort will not eradicate?"

Mr. Cooley felt that the "drunk" and the vagabond, the petty offender and the unfortunate woman, need and are entitled to help rather than to punishment. And in the administration of Cleveland's institution, kindness has taken the place of punishment; help has been substituted for fear.

The laboratory where this experiment is being tried out is known as the Cleveland Farm Colony. It is a nineteen-hundred-acre farm, which lies back ten miles from the lake, high above the surrounding country, with an inspiring outlook which covers the city below and Lake Erie in the distance. Here is a beautiful city cemetery. Elsewhere is a municipal tuberculosis hospital. On the highest point of land is the infirmary group of buildings. In still another section is the workhouse.

I recently visited this colony with Mr. Cooley. We came upon a large gang of men engaged in grading the land and in constructing roads and sewers. It was a little startling to be told that they were workhouse prisoners. They looked like other men, it was true, for they wore no prison garb. They were not locked together by a ball and chain. They moved about as freely as any other men might move at that sort of work. I looked for a guard with a rifle across his knees to prevent some sudden uprising or an attempted break for liberty. There was no such person in sight. Nor was there any stockade or other inclosure to prevent the escape of the men.

Later we came upon a body of men at work in a stone quarry. They were gathering stone for the roads or for the foundations of the buildings, or for sale to contractors. They, too, were just like other men. And there were no guards here. Wherever we went upon this great plantation of nineteen hundred acres we came upon men, singly or in groups, gathering potatoes, corn, fruit, hay, or grain, and doing other farm work. They were all workhouse prisoners.

"How do you manage it?" I inquired

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of Dr. Cooley. "These men are committed for some serious offense. How do you keep them from organizing, from assaulting some one and escaping in a body? If you do not guard them in the daytime, where do you keep them at night?"

"Oh, we have no trouble about that," said Dr. Cooley. "We have no guards; we have no stockade; there is no one about the place, so far as I know, who carries so much as a stick or a revolver. We trust these men, and because we trust them they respect the trust. They are committed for vagrancy, for drunkenness, for assault, for the many misdemeanors and petty offenses that occur in a large city. We used to lock these men up in the workhouse in the city. We put them at pulling brushes, a laborious and confining work. The men were weak enough when they came to us. They were dissipated, unstrung, and for various reasons unable to resist temptation. We kept them in the workhouse until they had worked out their sentence, and then turned them out in the street again. Of course they drifted into the nearest saloon. Where else could they go? Confinement had weakened their will power and destroyed their physical health, so that their whole nature craved a stimulant. Often they were back to us within twenty-four hours. That was inevitable. They were less fit for work than when they came to us, and they were hardened by the treatment which the city had meted out to them.

"Instead of punishing these men by exacting tasks for which they are unsuited, we now put them on this beautiful farm. They live out of doors. They are working at something for which they are fitted. For most of them come from some coarse work or other. We have work here for a generation to come. We have a splendid quarry from which we can build miles of roads, and lay the foundations of our buildings. Then, too, we have this great estate to farm. We will supply the city hospitals, infirmary, and other institutions with good milk, with fresh vegetables. We can also supply the police and fire department with hay and grain. Even from a financial point of view this experiment justifies itself. But that is the least important consideration. The principal thing is that we restore the prisoner's self-respect. He grows strong by outdoor work. He goes back to life again able to meet the temptations which the city offers. And a very large percentage of these men never come back. But better even than that, we restore their respect and confidence in themselves. For we treat them like men and they respond to it. We have had hundreds of prisoners at work on the farm here and only a handful have ever taken advantage of their liberty. And it was the other prisoners who were most incensed at their escape. They were unhappy because some of their associates had broken their word. That is why we do not need guards to watch these men."

There is another thing, too, which the files of the newspapers tell of this experiment station for making men. Four or five years ago, when many prisoners were paroled by Dr. Cooley from the workhouse because they could not pay their fines, the ministers of the city and the newspapers united in a protest against the wholesale jail delivery which was going on. Dr. Cooley quietly justified his policy by saying: "The rich avoid imprisonment by paying the fines which the police court imposes. The poor cannot pay their fines because they are poor, and are sent to the workhouse in consequence. That is imprisonment for debt, a debt due the city. And imprisonment for debt is contrary to justice and humanity." This same policy has been continued ever since. Now the city accepts it without protest. As a matter of fact, it accepts it with pride. Probably no one of the radical departures from established traditions which have been accomplished during the administration of Mayor Johnson meets with such universal approval as does the humanizing of the treatment of the poor and the semi-criminal class. Whether the criminals have been made better or worse (and there seems to be no doubt that they are made better), the city itself has been bettered by this policy. Cleveland is a living example of the philosophy of Tolstoy, that society suffers more than the offender by its pun-

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ishments, for society is hardened by the public expression of vengeance.

The Cleveland Colony is much more than a plantation for workhouse prisoners. It is designed as a thing of beauty. It occupies a commanding site of about three square miles. It has been laid out by an expert architect and landscape gardener. It has been designed not unlike the city's monumental group plan of public buildings, which has excited the admiration of America. In the most commanding location is the infirmary group. All of the buildings are to be of the low Mission type of architecture. The buildings are to be of brick covered with white marble dust. In the center of the group is the Administration Building, surrounding a cloistered court. This is now being erected. Here is to be an immense kitchen. Here are the shops and the means of employing the city's wreckage who heretofore have been sent to a city infirmary. There will be all sorts of handicrafts. On either side of the main building, of the same general style of architecture, are the dormitories for the men and the women. And out from these, in a long, semicircular wing, are to be cottages in which the Americans, the Hungarians, the Poles, and other peoples will be grouped according to their nationality. There will be work here, both indoor and outdoor, upon the farm. The inmates will produce their own keep, and will live in a clean, healthy environment of nature.

Off in another corner is to be the workhouse group. Here the petty offenders of the city will all be housed. They will be employed at farm labor. They will be protected from temptation. They will be given the chance to regain their physical and moral strength.

In yet another section, and several miles away, is to be the City Tuberculosis Hospital. Such an institution already exists upon the estate. It was one of the first municipal hospitals in the United States. It is designed by the most modern experts, and will permit those too poor to afford a private sanitarium to regain their health. In yet another section is a city cemetery laid off like a city park. The city does not monopolize the cemetery business, but through the ownership of several cemeteries it keeps down the prices of the private ones.

All these institutions will be connected by broad boulevards and avenues. There will be places for recreation, opportunities for education, and in a big, generous way a chance to rehabilitate their character for the thousands who, for one reason or another, have failed to "catch on."

All this is not accidental. It is part of a comprehensive programme for the care of the city's unfortunates. It has been going on now for nearly seven years. The old workhouse has been revolutionized. Classes have been introduced where young men and old are given a chance to pick up a knowledge of elementary things. There are classes in arithmetic and reading, even in painting. There have been a dozen or more prisoners who studied art. This has been worked out within the workhouse itself. Some of the prisoners are teachers. Others come back, when released, to carry on the work at night. The generosity of the city has awakened a gratitude on the part of those who have been helped by it. That love begets love, just as hate begets hate, has been determined by the change in the temper of the prisoners themselves. About two years ago one of the men who had been released saved up ten dollars from his wages and returned to the workhouse to grub-stake a friend. They took rooms together. Then they obtained the release of a third. Out of this grew the Brotherhood. The Brotherhood rented a house upon which they have expended a total of $2,200 in furnishings. This has all been paid off by the men themselves. They go to the workhouse and take the discharged prisoners on the expiration of their terms, and protect them until they secure a position. They give them food and lodging. In two years' time four hundred and twenty-seven men have passed through the Brotherhood association, which is in no way connected with the city, but is maintained by the discharged prisoners themselves. They bring their wages to the parole officer to be kept by him for them, or paid out

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to their wives and children. Over $12,000 has passed through the department's hands in this way. This, too, is an evidence of the reflex action of kindness. Men who previously left the workhouse with hatred in their hearts for society, now have gratitude for the city because it has helped them to escape from drunkenness, vagrancy, and destitution. It has re-established their self-respect and enabled them to begin life anew. They have been able to do this, too, without the brand of crime upon them.

But the city has not limited its efforts to the adult criminal and dependent classes. It has sought to check the origin of crime at its source. Some miles from the city, in another direction from the farm colony, is "Boyville." Boyville is Cleveland's farm for boys. It is 285 acres in extent. It was acquired in 1902. Its beginnings were modest, but it has since grown until it now consists of seven cottages, containing more than one hundred boys. Prior to its opening, boys who were guilty of truancy and other petty offenses were lodged in the police station or put in jail. Most frequently their offenses were of a trivial sort. They were neglected at home by parents who were out at work from ten to twelve hours a day. They were thrown on the street by industrial conditions. They organized into gangs for play or depredation. They obtained the ill will of the police, and frequently were led from one offense to another until they committed some serious crime. The jail was the only place of commitment. Here in a few days' time they learned more vice and crime than they ever dreamed of. They came out with their imaginations fired for some other exploit. They looked upon criminal practices as a great game or a profession. The net result of punishment was the creation of criminals.

Now these boys are taken to Boyville for the less serious offenses. Here they are assigned to cottages which bear the name of Washington, of Jefferson, of Lincoln, of Jackson. Each cottage is a home, presided over by a motherly matron. The main administration building is a school where the boys are taught the same subjects as in the public school. They are kept here until released by the city. The whole atmosphere of Boyville is that of a home, not a prison. There are no bars, no places of confinement. The boys are largely on their honor, subject, however, to the fear of restraint. Boyville, too, is something more than a school. It is a great playground. The boys have a fire department, and are drilled in the protection of the property of the colony. They have an ice-pond upon which they skate and from which they gather ice in the winter. Here they fish and swim in the summer months. The boys also have all sorts of pets—dogs, calves, and goats. There is a herd of cattle. There are also horses and ponies. The boys have organized a baseball nine, and play matches during the season with boys of their age in the surrounding towns. They have athletic contests among themselves, and live a life of competitive emulation in those things that were unknown to them upon the streets. It is no disgrace to have been at Boyville. It is an Alma Mater which leaves no stain of criminal confinement. Often the boys go back to their parents with regret. Their stay at Boyville has been a long, happy vacation. It is the only real home that they have ever known.

No longer do these young offenders come before the police court. They are cared for by a juvenile court especially created by the Legislature. Connected with this court are men and women probation officers who watch the boys that are left at home, who investigate their surroundings, and otherwise protect the boys from those temptations which are especially incident to poverty. Those offenders who cannot be cared for at home are sent to Boyville through the juvenile court. From the time of their arrest until their discharge they come in touch only with sympathetic officials. Their sense of hatred is not awakened by burly policemen or cruel treatment. They, too, come back to the city with better and cleaner bodies, with a new sense of responsibility and an awakened interest in the city which has done so much for them.

This process of stopping crime at its source has been still further promoted

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by the opening up of a dozen playgrounds all over the city. Here skilled instructors teach organized play. They take the boys and the girls from the streets and keep them out of temptation. A large gymnasium with an instructor has been opened in one of the public bath-houses. It is crowded nightly with young and old desirous of taking advantage of the opportunities which the city offers. Three all-the-year-round bath-houses have been opened in the poorer districts. To one of them a public laundry has been added. It is largely used by the women of the neighborhood. All over the city are public ball-grounds laid out by the City Park Department. There are fifty such diamonds in all. On Saturday and Sunday regular games are played by city leagues, which engage the use of the diamond, without any charge, through the Park Department. Hundreds of thousands of people are gotten into the parks by these means who otherwise would have no means of recreation when not at work. In the winter as many more skating-rinks are open. Vacant lots, loaned to the city by their owners, are flooded and kept in condition. Here carnivals and skating contests are held. Throughout the year all sorts of festivals are promoted for the school-children and for the various nationalities. There are May days, and romping days, and fishing days, in which prizes are given to successful contestants. During the summer months, too, upwards of a hundred band concerts are given in various parks of the city. They cost but an insignificant sum, but offer happiness to millions.

The policy of the Cleveland administration has been to make the parks the people's commons, and, by generous expenditure for public recreation, to check the growth of vice and crime by offering a substitute. The saloons of our cities are filled more because men have no other source of companionship and recreation than because they want to drink. And Cleveland deals with the temperance question by offering another alternative. To the tens of thousands of industrial workers who have no homes, many of whom live in cheap boarding and lodging houses, the parks have taken the place of the saloon.

All this has come about in six years' time. Cleveland has established a new idea in criminal and philanthropic administration. It has blazed a pathway which will as profoundly influence the future as the Elmira Reformatory has influenced the past generation. This has been done from no sordid thought of pecuniary saving; it has been done as a matter of justice and of right to those of our city who contribute their lives to its upbuilding, and, by reason of accident or misfortune over which they have no control, have been consigned to the rubbish heap by society. For the bulk of those who fail do so through conditions over which they have no control. Through hard times, through physical accident, through sickness, they lose their grip on work and imperceptibly slip beyond the line of self-support. Heretofore the city punished them and drove them still lower through unsympathetic charitable relief or inhuman criminal administration. Cleveland now treats its unfortunate wreckage not only according to the dictates of Christianity, but according to the dictates of justice as well.

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RENT STRIKES AND CROWDED NEIGHBORHOODS

BY CHARLES S. BERNHEIMER, PH.D.

Assistant Head Worker University Settlement, New York City

WE hear a great deal about the crowding of the lower East Side of Manhattan. We also hear about the high rents there. But we hear very little about people moving away, in spite of crowding and high rents. There have been "strikes" of tenants against the rents, but these strikes seem to have little effect in lowering the rates or in driving the tenants away from the tenements.

It is true that every year a number of people move from the lower East Side to Harlem, to the Bronx, and to Brooklyn. Young married couples, unharassed by the traditions of the older people, and desirous of setting up amid better surroundings, move to other neighborhoods less crowded and cramped. Families that have grown to some affluence also move uptown or across the bridge.

But as these families go out of the great Ghetto below Fourteenth Street, new families from Russia, Rumania, and Galicia come in. Here they meet relatives, countrymen, and friends, about whom they know from the "old country." Here the head of the family can get a foothold in some occupation. Here he feels there is some help at hand whatever happens to him or his family.

Many of the older people, no matter how well-to-do they become, prefer to remain in this neighborhood. They do not want to change their routine. They are near the synagogue. They can get all their meals Kosher—that is, according to the Scriptural Jewish dietary law. They would be unhappy if taken out of their environment. "There is enough tragedy in a Jewish home because of the difference of point of view between parents and children without adding that of absolute change to a strange neighborhood," a father will tell you.

Such a father was persuaded by his family to move from a lower East Side tenement to a comfortable apartment in the Bronx. The family remained a few months, but the "old man" got restless and homesick for Madison Street. There was nothing to do but to please him, and so the family hied itself back to Madison Street. The father can once more go his old ways, the young people can visit their old friends, and they make the best of their old environment.

If the young people were the only ones to be consulted, the migration to other sections would be much greater. Many are desirous of getting away from the close-packedness of the Ghetto; they want more space, better atmosphere. Many a member of an organization that meets on the lower East Side continues to come to its meetings, even though he or she has moved a considerable distance away. The friendly relations with the members continue, but the advantages of better housing conditions are afforded.

But if a man is poor and must be near his work, he cannot afford to spend car-fares. For the sort of work he is able to do he finds it better to live in lower Manhattan. I know a man, a "*bigler*" (presser), who moved his family to Brooklyn because he could get more and better rooms for the same amount than on the lower East Side, but now he is back again. Why? "I had to pay car-fare to New York from Brooklyn," he said, "and so did my daughter, in going to work. It was too much." If the working members of the family could have gotten employment in Brooklyn, they would have stayed there; but they couldn't.

"It is easier to get boarders in New York than in Brooklyn." That is another reason for living on the lower East Side in preference to a less crowded neighborhood. The explanation was given by a member of a family that received

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$10 a month from four lodgers—three men and one woman—who occupied three rooms with the four members of the family, father, mother, and two daughters of nineteen and fifteen respectively. The father earns $250 a year as a worker in the manufacture of smoking-pipes. The oldest daughter earns $150 as a milliner. The family had lived in Brooklyn two years, but decided to return to Manhattan, where they could get lodgers more readily and thus eke out their income of $400 by an addition of $120 a year. Out of the earnings of $520, $186—that is, $15.50 a month—had to be paid for rent.

The average proportion paid for rent out of the income is about thirty per cent. That is to say, if a family earns $600 a year, $180 goes for rent. I found this to be actually the case in a number of instances which I investigated. Many of the people do not earn more than $600 a year, and one can easily see that they find it difficult to pay the high rent. But they cannot help themselves.

I obtained the amount of the rents of over three hundred families in a fairly typical block of the lower East Side. The result was as follows, showing the average rental:

Two-room apartments.....	$10.66 a month.
Three-room apartments.....	14.08 a month.
Four-room apartments.....	18.63 a month.
Five-room apartments.....	20.56 a month.

The average rent per room was found to be $4.63 per month.

If we examine the occupations of many of these people, we shall be able to understand why they cannot move. Those in the clothing and cloak trades find work in the business section, to which they can walk, or they work for contractors in their own neighborhood. One can easily see that if they moved away they would be moving from their livelihoods. The peddlers find their customers on the East Side streets of Manhattan. The shopkeepers sell to their neighbors. If they had shops somewhere else, they would have fewer neighbors, and consequently a smaller number of customers. So, too, with a number in other occupations. They do business among their own people, and they cannot take chances of going to sections where they are not known. They live too close to the margin.

What families can, then, most readily be moved? Not those whose income is so low that the car-fare in going to and from work would be a bar. Not those whose members have an established trade, who would lose the trade if they moved, and whose business really compels them to be close to it. When we consider the large number of workers who can now walk from the East Side to their occupations on Broadway and adjoining streets, their low incomes, their narrow opportunities for change of livelihood, we can more clearly understand the hazard of removal from this district.

Assuming that the families with larger earnings can more easily be moved, let us take as examples some of the apparently most promising:

A family of eight occupy three rooms, for which a rent of $15 a month, or $180 a year, is paid. They have been living on Orchard Street for three years, or ever since they came to this country. The father kept a shoe store in Rumania. He is a peddler here, earning $250 a year. His oldest son, twenty-four years of age, is also a peddler, earning $400 a year. His daughter of twenty-one is a dressmaker, earning $600 a year. Another daughter, aged nineteen, earns $150 as a sweater-maker. The next youngest is a young man of seventeen, who is an operator on cloaks, at which he earns $200. A son of sixteen is an errand-boy with an income of $300. The youngest of the family, a boy of fourteen, goes to school. The total family income is $1,900 a year. If this family lived in another section of the city, the individual earnings would be considerably reduced because of car-fare and loss of time. The character of their occupations is such that they must be near their work. True, they are greatly crowded, living in three rooms, and, for the sake of mere decency and health, they ought to have more space.

There is a Rumanian Jewish family of eleven living in five rooms. They have been here four years. The father was a tradesman in the "old country,"

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but has no occupation here. The income of the children is as follows:

Son, 25 years of age, smoking-pipe polisher, earns $14 per week.....	$700 per year.
Son, 23 years of age, manufactures dress-suit cases, earns $13 per week.....	650 per year.
Daughter, 20 years of age, ladies' waist operator, earns from $8 to $10 per week, work 2 months slack.....	400 per year.
Daughter, 18 years of age, ladies' underwear operator, earns from $8 to $10 per week, work 2 months slack.....	400 per year.
Daughter, 17 years of age, ladies' underwear operator, earns from $8 to $10 per week, work 3 months slack.....	350 per year.
Daughter, 15 years of age, neckwear operator, earns $7 per week.....	350 per year.
Total family earnings,	$2,850 per year.

The three youngest members of the family go to school. The family had considered moving from the neighborhood, but the transportation problem was too great—that is to say, they were unwilling to take the chance of moving away from work to a distance compelling daily outlay of car-fare. The item for car-fare for five persons at ten cents for six working days in the week would be at least $150 in the year, apart from the expenses for meals which would be incurred on account of the distance from home. It is true, it would be quite possible for this family to move, but it is worth while considering the difficulties even where the conditions appear favorable for removal.

One who was a farmer in Russia has a candy store here. He has been in this country fifteen years and has occupied his present apartments for five years. He was formerly in a small town in Pennsylvania, but preferred to live in New York City. He pays $20 a month for rent, He receives $5 a month from a boarder. There are a wife and three children living with him in a five-room apartment. A daughter of twenty-five works at cigars, earning $600 a year, and another daughter of twenty-two earns $200 as a petticoat worker. A son of fifteen goes to the City College. The father earns $500. The total annual income of the family is, therefore, $1,300. If the father could establish a trade in another section and earn $500, the family could easily move, but if he failed to establish himself the burdens of the family would be increased instead of diminished.

A Galician family of eight occupies four rooms, for which the rent is $15.50 a month. The father worked in a mill in his native country. He came here six years ago, and now has a tailoring and cleaning place from which he has an income of about $700 a year. His oldest son of twenty-six is a barber earning $500 a year. Two daughters of twenty-three and twenty-one respectively work at ladies' waists and earn $250 a year each. A son of nineteen is with an electrical firm, where he earns $250. A daughter of sixteen is an office girl earning $150. The youngest son of fifteen goes to the City College. The total family earnings are $2,100 a year. Is the father justified in moving his shop? Business experience would seem to prove that it is unwise, for he has an established trade in the lower East Side.

When we realize that these are some of the most promising families, we obtain an insight into the difficulties which confront the suggestion of moving to less crowded quarters. Those families with incomes of less than $1,000 per year appear to be better off—because nearer to their work and more sure of it—than if they went to another section of the city or to its outskirts.

The diffusion of the people who crowd the lower East Side requires transit facilities that will enable them to reach their work without great expense of money or time. In the present situation neither element has been sufficiently reduced.

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INVESTING MONEY

BY GEORGE CAREY

THIRD PAPER

STEAM RAILWAY BONDS

IT may be said conservatively that there exists no form of security better suited to the investment of savings than the bonds and stocks of prosperous and well-managed steam railway companies. As regards their bonds this statement may be made with especial emphasis. It is true that, because of poor judgment or official dishonesty, many holders of railway securities have suffered heavy losses, both temporary and permanent. Receiverships and reorganizations have been found necessary. But in the long run the railways have stood for value that cannot be wholly destroyed. They have become the arteries of the land, the heralds and props of commerce and development.

The history of the building of the great transcontinental lines is a fascinating story of adventure, struggle, sacrifice, and conquest. Their construction has turned Thomas Jefferson's seemingly speculative Louisiana Purchase into an investment of incalculable value to that great trust estate, the American people, already, in 1803, beginning to accumulate wealth by leaps and bounds.

Quick transportation of mail matter, commodities, and passengers is vital to trade. This the railways furnish. It is inconceivable that any one of the great or, for that matter, any one of the smaller railway companies should cease operation. Once completed and running, they must continue until the end of time, through good seasons and bad. The people whose savings have built them will compel them to continue under all conditions. Hence there will always exist some material property of real value to secure the bondholder's principal, and some earning capacity to insure interest upon his loan, provided he has been careful to select securities which are very close to the rails. There is a saying among investment bankers that "the nearer the rails the stronger the bond." This means that those bonds which form a first lien or claim upon property and earning power are the most desirable. Bonds of this character will be found to possess, in happy combination, those fundamental elements of a sound investment security: safety of principal, ready convertibility into cash, and reasonable income. With the bonds and stocks of newly built railways, the earning capacity of which is as yet unproven, small savings should have no concern. Securities of this kind offer temptations often irresistible in the matters of present large income and possible future profits. The fact, however, that these bonds and stocks are offered at such invitingly low prices suggests the risk to both principal and interest which their purchase involves. It is obvious that every new enterprise must entail risk, no matter how laudable its promotion may be. But wise investors would do well to allow that initial risk to be assumed by great capitalists.

This assertion is borne out by reference to the fact that in nearly all States laws have been passed specifically naming the kinds of securities in which trust funds and savings bank deposits may be invested. Under these laws large income is sacrificed to absolute safety. The laws of New York and Massachusetts in this regard are particularly rigid. For instance, if railway securities are to be purchased, only first mortgage bonds, or occasionally general mortgages of very strong companies, are permitted. Stocks are excluded. The bonds which may be selected must be secured upon the property of companies specifically mentioned because of their proven conservatism and earning capacity, established through a period of years. Of course the very fact that bonds of this sort are in such demand and so absolutely reliable makes their price high and their income return proportionately low. Individual investors may with perfect safety purchase railway bonds of

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a less "gilt-edged" character, but it might be well to select some such "gilt-edged" issue as a standard of comparison to aid in keeping well within the margin of safety. It may be laid down as a general rule that no bond is to be considered a real investment security unless the parent company shows net earnings to an amount at least twice as great as the sum required to pay the interest charges upon that particular issue. (Net earnings are the sum remaining after all expenses of operation, all taxes and rentals have been paid. It is applicable to payment of interest on all bonded indebtedness. After this is done the sum still remaining is called "surplus" or "net profit," and is to be used in payment of dividends to the stockholders, or owners of the company.)

Railway bonds are usually issued in $1,000 pieces, but there are also many $500 and a few $100 bonds. Upon the exchanges, however, when one buys or sells a bond, unless specifically stated otherwise, a $1,000 bond is meant. The bond issues of nearly all steam railways are listed and dealt in upon the exchanges of one or more of the great cities. Thus they have a wide and ready market. Because of this fact, they will be accepted anywhere by bankers as collateral for loans, where real estate mortgages and the bonds of small industrial companies, known only in the locality in which the property mortgaged is situated, will ordinarily be refused because of their less ready negotiability. Railway bonds are issued in both coupon and registered form.

There are many points to be considered in judging a railway bond for investment. What is the nature of the country through which the road runs? Is it densely populated or otherwise? Is that country chiefly agricultural or chiefly manufacturing? Does the road depend for its freight earnings very largely upon a single product such as coal or lumber or grain? Or is the freight of a diversified and well-distributed character? How does the bonded indebtedness per mile of road compare with the net earnings per mile? What has been the history of the road over a period of years regarding payment of dividends? What percentage of earnings are turned back into the property in form of betterments, in the building of new bridges, of double-tracking, superior roadbeds, modern equipment, etc.? These are some of the questions that should be asked by the intending investor. Annual reports are confusing things at best, and methods of bookkeeping vary with the company, yet investors will do well to cultivate the acquaintance of such essential points as gross and net earnings, the ratio of operating expenses to gross earnings, maintenance and depreciation funds, and net profits. Always remember that the "nearer the rails the stronger the bond," and in selecting an investment keep as close to the rails as is consistent with a living income.

When a railway line is projected, the bond issue which is sold to the investing public through the medium of the great investment banking houses, in order to obtain funds for construction, constitutes a first claim upon all the assets of the company, *i.e.*, stations, roadbeds, terminal properties, land grants, shops, and often upon cars and engines as well. As the country is developed and the road's business expands, it frequently becomes necessary to borrow further sums to be used for improvements necessitated by the heavier traffic, and for new working capital. A new bond issue is proposed, and a second mortgage is placed upon the property, which follows, in its claims to assets and earnings, the first mortgage. The merchant conducts his business upon precisely similar principles, borrowing new working funds from time to time as business increases beyond the capacity of his original capital. The merchant, however, instead of issuing a mortgage, borrows upon his personal note for a short period, that note being secured by collateral deposited with the lender, or else by the implied pledge of his merchandise and other real and personal property.

It will be readily seen that, when the money obtained by the sale of the second mortgage bonds has been expended for betterments to the property and for superior transportation facilities, the value of the first mortgage bonds is materially enhanced. The latter now

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constitute no longer a speculative but a real investment security. However, the second mortgage easily belongs to the speculative class, since the road's capacity to carry this additional burden of debt has not as yet been tested.

Not long ago two men, brothers, one a minister, the other a literary man, came for advice to a Wall Street investment banking firm. A few years ago they had been induced by some eloquent bond salesman to place their savings in the second mortgage bonds of a small road in the West, which began nowhere and ended nowhere—but they knew nothing of that. It seemed they had been finally induced to buy the bonds by the bait of a free gift or "bonus" of stock, the market possibilities of which the salesman described with enthusiasm. About a year ago the bonds ceased to pay interest. As a matter of fact, such interest as had been paid was drawn from the sum obtained by the sale of the bonds themselves, and not from earnings. At the present time these bonds are worth less than fifty per cent of their par value, and the stock less than one per cent. There is no market for either. These poor men, like many thousands of others, thought they were getting something for nothing and thus giving old Dame Fortune a sly dig. The writer has an acquaintance, an elderly professional man, with highly developed imaginative faculties and a profound ignorance of practical business. Circulars filled with lurid phrases appeal to him irresistibly. Time and again has he thrown his savings to the winds to purchase bits of paper that represented an unexplored hole in the ground in some remote wilderness. And yet he remains undismayed, and ready for new ventures equally hazardous. Had he been content with legitimate investments, he would now be comfortably well-to-do.

In a preceding article the differing characteristics of stocks and bonds in general were discussed. Also the various classes of bonds which may be issued by stock companies were mentioned, special reference being had to railway corporations. They were: First, second, and third mortgages; extension, divisional, and refunding mortgages; general, consolidated, and unified mortgages; collateral trust mortgages; participating, convertible, and sinking fund mortgages; debenture bonds; equipment and car trust bonds and notes, and short-time corporate notes, both secured and unsecured. First and second mortgage bonds have already been described at length.

Third mortgage bonds, as their title suggests, are issued against property already pledged to secure the first and second mortgages. Their claim upon earnings and assets follows the satisfaction of the two prior liens. Sometimes bonds are a first lien upon one portion of road, a second mortgage upon another, and constitute still a third claim upon yet another.

Extension mortgage bonds. Where the territory lying beyond the terminus of a road reaches such a state of development that the road's management thinks it rich enough to be tapped, the road is extended. To finance its building, extension bonds are issued and sold, and these bonds form a first lien upon the extension.

Divisional bonds. A series of such extensions, whether they be continuations of the main line, or spurs running off at angles through adjacent communities, are spoken of as "divisions," and the mortgages sold to build them are first mortgages upon such divisions. Divisional and extension bonds are, as a rule, not regarded as being as attractive as the direct liens upon the main line. The reason for this is that such extensions and spurs are dependent for their earning power upon the outlet afforded them by the main line, whereas the latter is a paying property independent of the business contributed by the divisional lines.

Refunding bonds are issued to redeem old outstanding bonds when they mature. The amount of a refunding mortgage may greatly exceed the issue that is to be redeemed, and frequently a portion is sold long before the old bonds come due. The funds accruing from such sale are to be used for various purposes which must be set forth in the mortgage. An amount sufficient to take up the old bonds is retained in the company's treasury until the latter fall due.

General, consolidated, and unified bonds. The terms are practically identi-

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cal. Such mortgages are usually secured upon an entire property, subject to the rights of prior main line and divisional bonds, or upon several independent properties which have been brought together, "consolidated" or "unified" under the management and ownership of one parent corporation.

Collateral trust bonds are those issued for the purchase of some independent competing road, the stocks and bonds of which, or at least a sufficient amount of the latter to carry control to the purchasing company, are deposited with a trustee as collateral to secure the mortgage. The latter, therefore, is only an indirect lien upon the purchased property. It is often difficult to estimate the real worth or marketability of this collateral. Hence a very large proportion of collateral trust bonds may be regarded as approaching the border line of the speculative.

Participating bonds are rare. Besides forming a direct lien, first, second, or third, as the case may be, upon the property and receiving an agreed rate of interest, they are allowed to participate in the company's surplus earnings when the latter exceed a given amount.

Convertible bonds have of late years become a very popular form of issue. In the first place, they are a direct obligation of the issuing company. In addition, the mortgage contract or indenture, as it is termed, accords the holder the privilege of converting his bond into stock of the company at any time, or at certain specified times within a given period. Take the case of the five per cent convertible bonds of a certain railway. Suppose the investor purchases one of these bonds at par. He is assured of his five per cent by the promise of a solvent and highly prosperous company. Since his bond is a direct obligation of the latter, it is not conceivable that in normal times its market price should decline very far below this point, five per cent upon a safe investment being an equitable rate of income. But he has also the right at any time within five years to exchange the bond, dollar for dollar, for the company's common stock, paying six per cent dividends. There is every reason to expect that such a six per cent stock should, in ordinary seasons, bring a price far in excess of its par value.

Sinking fund mortgages contain a clause which provides for the setting aside, out of earnings each year, a certain sum to be applied to the annual or semi-annual purchase and retirement of so many bonds of that particular issue. The bonds are sometimes purchased at an agreed price, and again are drawn by lot.

Debenture bonds are not secured by a mortgage, but are simply a long-time promise to pay. They resemble notes, and their value as an investment depends entirely upon the general credit of the issuing company.

Equipment and car trust bonds are secured by the pledge of the freight and passenger cars for the purchase of which they are sold. The agreement is usually drawn between the trustee, acting for the railway company, and the manufacturers and builders of the cars. The bonds are issued in series, so many maturing every six months. Under the terms of the contract the title to the cars, or actual ownership, remains with the trustee until all payments have been made. This is a very safe form of investment, and usually returns an excellent income.

Short-time notes. During the past five years there has been an enormous expansion of all kinds of business. Innumerable new enterprises have been launched, until the investment market became glutted with so-called undigested securities. But continually the need for money wherewith to carry on business has grown more and more urgent. To raise this money new expedients had to be resorted to. New bonds and stock issues had already been overdone. Investors refused to take more. Hence during the past few years, and especially in 1906, the railway and industrial companies have put out huge issues of short-time notes maturing in from one to three years. They have been obliged to sell these notes, because of the extraordinary and universal clamor or money, at prices which insured the purchaser an income return running all the way from 5½ to 8 and 9 per cent. During the recent panic weeks the short-time obligations of companies enjoying the highest credit could

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be bought at prices to yield from 8 per cent to 12 per cent. Some of these notes are secured by the deposit, with a trustee, of collateral in the form of stocks and bonds of various kinds. Others are simply secured upon the credit of the company. Many of them are very desirable for those who care for short-time investments.

In a succeeding article the securities of what are known as public service corporations, *i. e.*, electric railways, both urban and interurban, electric lighting and gas companies will be dealt with.

THE WOMANLY QUEEN

BY ELIZABETH L. NORTH

WHILE the details of the childhood and early girlhood of the late Queen Victoria are quite familiar to all who have been interested in England and English ideals, yet there is a place for the work recently done in editing and publishing a selection of her letters covering the period from 1837 to 1861. The life of the good Queen was a rare example of orderly and sane development. The daughter of the fourth son of George III., the Duke of Kent, who died when she was an infant, she was brought up by her mother, who is described as affectionate and impulsive, with more intellectual ability than practical wisdom in worldly matters. She was a daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Saalfield-Coburg and the widow of the Prince of Leiningen. She brought to the little Alexandrina Victoria a half brother and sister, to whom the child was deeply attached and with whom, especially the sister, Feodore, she kept up an intimate correspondence in after years. The influences that formed the character of the Queen are not difficult to trace. The Duke of Kent certainly endowed his daughter with many of his own qualities. His strict sense of responsibility, rather liberal outlook, and remarkably methodical habits were all reproduced in her. Under the care of her mother, who very soon recognized the possibilities of the future, the little girl was trained in all obedience, and with almost Spartan simplicity. In 1872 Queen Victoria wrote some reminiscences of her childhood, in her own hand, which indicate that but few gayeties or childish pleasures were allowed her. She never had a room to herself until she was grown up, always sharing her mother's room until she came to the throne. Her greatest joy was to visit her Uncle Leopold, her mother's brother, at Claremont, hallowed as the home of the Princess Charlotte during the short period of her married life with him. There Victoria and her sister Feodore, seven years her senior (and afterward the Princess of Hohenlohe), seem to have behaved like real children, though modern children even in England would regard their pleasures as deplorably tame. Up to five years of age the little girl seems to have been indulged to the extent of English ideas of the period. Then came a check, and Miss Lehzen became her governess, exercising a kind but very firm control over the passionate but loving little child. The Queen tells us in all simplicity that she was taught from the first to beg her maid's pardon for any naughtiness to her, and adds the characteristic reflection: "I think every one should *own* their fault in a kind way to any one be he or she the lowest—if one has been rude to or injured them by word or deed, especially those below you;" an expression of correct sentiment expressed in terms which show both the straight thinking of the Queen and the difficulties of the English language. As a child she possessed that natural combination of qualities, self-will and warm-heartedness, that invariably wins especial love. Of all the persons who surrounded her in her childhood, her Uncle Leopold, afterwards King of the Belgians and father of the present King Leopold, exerted the strongest influence. He added generously to the inadequate income of the Duchess of Kent, and felt a paternal

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interest in his little niece. The confidence then established between them was never dimmed.

The one really unhappy experience in the Queen's young life was the estrangement between the old King William IV. and the Duchess of Kent. That placed her in a trying position, and years after, upon the death of her mother, she reverts to it with bitter sorrow. The combined influences of heredity, training, temperament, and future possibilities found in the young Princess a substantial nature upon which to build, and the resultant character that developed normally into maturity was notable in many ways.

Nothing can be better in analysis than Mr. Benson's own summing up, describing the Princess: "She was high-spirited and willful, but devotedly affectionate, and almost typically feminine. She had a strong sense of duty and dignity, and strong personal prejudices. Confident in a sense as she was, she had the feminine instinct strongly developed of dependence upon some manly adviser. She was full of high spirits, and enjoyed excitement and life to the full. She liked the stir of London, was fond of dancing, of concerts, plays, and operas, and devoted to open-air exercise. Another important trait in her character must be noted. She had strong monarchical views and dynastic sympathies, but she had no aristocratic preferences; at the same time she had no democratic principles, but believed firmly in the due subordination of classes. . . . It was supremely fortunate that the Queen, by a providential gift of temperament, thoroughly understood the middle-class point of view. The two qualities that are most characteristic of British middle-class life are common sense and family affection; and on these particular virtues the Queen's character was based; so that by a happy intuition she was able to interpret and express the spirit and temper of that class which throughout her reign was destined to hold the balance of political power in its hands. Behind lay a deep sense of religion—the religion which centers in the belief in the Fatherhood of God, and is impatient of dogmatic distinctions and subtleties."

With this summary before us, accurate and complete, it only remains to furnish corroborating illustrations to the truth of the analysis.

Before her accession, indeed in the early part of the reign of William IV., a curious proposal was made to change the name of the Princess from Victoria to Charlotte or Elizabeth. The Princess's own feelings were not considered in the least. She awaited the decision quietly, "though grieved beyond measure," she says. Her self-control was rewarded by a notification from Lord Grey to the Duchess of Kent that, as the people were used to thinking of the Princess as Victoria, the idea was given up! Immediately after her accession, the touching story of which is too well known to be repeated here, she began to act upon the good advice she had received from her Uncle Leopold.

Urged to strengthen the habit of discretion and prudence, she writes a truly beautiful and dignified letter, dated June 19, 1837, accepting her great destiny, and with humble courage believes that "with good-will and honesty" she will not fail. The especial strength of a self-willed nature under the control of religion and common sense showed in these trying hours.

Commending her firmness, King Leopold writes this pithy sentence: "People must come to the opinion *it is of no use intriguing*, because when her mind is once made up and she thinks a thing right, no earthly power will make her change." It was upon this rock of conviction that the future Queen was to stand, both for her own sake and for the sake of her beloved people.

There is a noticeable lack of humor in the letters, and a corresponding lack of irritability. A high sense of responsibility possessed her whole thought, and yet she carried her burdens without depression, holding on her way with the springing step of healthful youth. Sometimes the absolutely matter-of-fact turn of her mind serves for humor, unconscious of it as she is herself. She relates a single anecdote of Talleyrand: "He was one of those people who I thought never would die. Did you know what Pozzo said to somebody here about him? He said he (Talleyrand) would

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not die yet, '*par ce que le Diable ne voulait pas l'avoir.*'" Her own description of her coronation is an exquisite bit of self-revelation, womanly, queenly, appreciative of all it meant, and moving, yet almost amusingly commonplace, in its simplicity. Again, she is the typical woman in all she writes of her approaching marriage. As a peasant subject of her own remarked, comfortably, "She was a nice, private kind of a lady." Her absolute devotion to and confidence in the Prince Consort is universally known. Their happiness was perfect, and her unrestrained words of affection show a loyal, tender heart. Her description of her feelings when she announced to Parliament her intention to marry is really touching. The picture of the fair young woman going through what she calls "a very nervous and awful affair" appeals to one's imagination. In reply to some proposal from Prince Albert as to a retirement to Windsor for a few days, she says, "You forget, my dearest love, that I am the Sovereign and that business can stop and wait for nothing." Her ideals certainly, as well as her practice, were far in advance of sovereigns who had preceded her upon the throne. What vivacity there is in these volumes generally appears in Lord Melbourne's letters to the Queen. Couched in properly respectful form, the favorite Premier ventures to make piquant comments upon people and events from time to time. In 1837 he was her principal adviser, and continued to be her friend until his death in 1848. Her estimate of him at that time indicates what experience and thought had done to mature her powers. She says of Melbourne, "I sincerely regret him, for he was truly attached to me, and though not a firm Minister, he was a noble, kind-hearted, generous being." Another quotation will show how true she was to her principles on every public question. The disturbances on the Continent in 1848 of course affected her deeply. Writing of the state of Germany and of France, she says to her uncle, "*What* a very bad figure we cut in this mediation! Really, it is quite immoral, with Ireland quivering in our grasp and ready to throw off her allegiance at any moment, for us to force Austria to give up her lawful possessions. What shall we say if Canada, Malta, etc., begin to trouble us? It hurts me terribly. This ought to be the principle in *all actions*, private as well as public: 'Was du nicht willst, dass dir gescheit, dass Ihn auch einem andern nicht.'"

The Queen's letters are full of italics, a fashion which was general in her young days, but which gives an exclamatory effect to her remarks. She says the papers say, "*No* Sovereign *was more* loved than I am (I am bold enough to say) and *that*, from our *happy domestic home*—which gives such a good example. . . . My beloved Albert . . . is *so* beloved by all the really influential people, and by *all* right thinking ones." What could be more delightfully naïve?

On securing Osborne, in the Isle of Wight, she writes: "It sounds so snug and nice to have a place of *one's own*; quiet and retired, and free from all Woods and Forests, and other charming Departments who really are the plague of one's life." An amusing comment by King Leopold reflects the aristocratic point of view, in the middle of the nineteenth century: "The dealings with artists, for instance, require great prudence; they are acquainted with all classes of society, and for that very reason dangerous; they are hardly *ever satisfied*, and when you have too much to do with them, you are sure to have *des ennuis*."

Her opinions and tastes were usually quite distinctly formed, and as she wrote to Lord John Russell about a pension to Father Mathew, she always speaks out her mind. Father Mathew had done much good by preaching temperance, "but," she says, "by the aid of superstition, which can hardly be patronized by the Crown."

She lost her heart to Jenny Lind, "who is perfection," she said. "Poor Grisi is quite going off, and after the pure angelic voice and extremely quiet perfect acting of J. Lind, she seems quite *passée*. Poor thing! She is *quite* furious about it, and was excessively impertinent to J. Lind."

Within this period of the Queen's life

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occurred the flight of Louis Philippe to England and all the disasters that followed. She preserved with great dignity the just poise between her keen womanly sympathy with the royal sufferers, and the clear-sighted estimate of the unfortunate causes that led to their fall. Later her devotion to Napoleon III. and the Empress Eugénie was most marked. In 1855 she writes to Baron Stockmar of Napoleon III., "For the Emperor *personally* I have conceived a *real* affection and friendship, and so I may truly say of the Prince. . . . He is so simple, so *naïf*, never making *des phrases* or paying compliments. So full of tact, good taste, high breeding; his attentions and respect toward us were so simple and unaffected, his kindness and friendship for the Prince so natural and so gratifying, *because* it is *not* forced, not *pour faire des compliments*. He is quite *The Emperor*, and yet in *no* way playing it; the Court and whole house infinitely more *regal* and better managed than in poor Louis Philippe's time, when all was in great noise and confusion and there was *no* Court."

The wise discrimination and true justice of the Queen appear in a short letter to Viscount Palmerston, on returning to him a letter from some unnamed lady to Lady Palmerston with this stately comment: "She has to observe that it has been with her an invariable rule never to take upon herself the office of sitting in judgment upon accusations or reports against private character. No person therefore can have any reason to suppose that she will, by marked neglect or manner, appear to pronounce a verdict upon matters in which she is not the proper Court of Appeal."

During the twenty-four years covered by these letters, the young Queen passed through the deepest experiences of her private life, to say nothing of tremendous political events that affected her deeply. She came to the throne, was married to the Prince of her choice, bore eight children, occupied her lofty position with undaunted courage, and showed a marvelous fidelity to her trust. Supported by her domestic happiness, and depending upon the help and counsel of the Prince Consort, she escaped the fretfulness that might have possessed a weaker nature.

In December, 1861, the Queen passed under the heavy cloud of bereavement which never was lifted from her loyal heart. The Prince Consort died, and the letters of the Queen to her beloved uncle are almost too intimate to be read. In the first sharpness of her grief she mourns "to see our pure, happy, quiet, domestic life, which *alone* enabled me to bear my *much* disliked position, CUT OFF at forty-two." She resolved to live for her children and her country, firm in the resolution to be led by "*no one* person, may *he* be ever so good, ever so devoted among my servants," but to have for her law "*his* wishes, *his* plans, about everything."

The emphasis put upon the woman, and not the Queen, in this review is by no means out of proportion. In feeling and by birth a sovereign, she was first of all a woman, and to a degree limited by the gentler feminine qualities. Good she was, but not weak in her goodness. Indeed, she was often quite immovable, and at times, no doubt, the statesmen who served her could find another word to describe her firmness.

Eminently sensible, and peculiarly formed to enjoy domestic happiness, this woman of royal lineage filled with dignity, sincerity, and ability the high place to which she never doubted she was divinely called. She stood before her people exalted in their loyal affection, a wholesome influence felt from the Court to the humblest cottage.

The three large volumes are enriched by many fine photogravure reproductions of portraits, the originals found usually at Windsor. The portrait-painter Winterhalter seems to have been in royal favor, as most of the Queen's portraits are by him.

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A UNIQUE PERSONALITY

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

A LITTLE volume on the Personality of Christ,[1] consisting of three addresses delivered on a Commencement occasion at Yale Divinity School, has suggested the reflections which follow, for which acknowledgment is here made to the authors of this volume. The volume is recommended to the thoughtful consideration of both laymen and clergymen, especially the latter.

Chateaubriand said that Protestantism is the Bible. Modern faith is beginning to say that Christianity is Jesus Christ. The center of Catholicism is a Church; the center of Protestantism is a Book; the center of Christianity is a Person. Not a theory about this Person; not a definition of this Person; but love for him and loyalty to him. To learn the laws of life from him is to be his disciple; to join the ranks of those who owe the inspiration of their lives to him and are endeavoring to complete the work which he began is to be his follower. He is sometimes classed with other great religious leaders—Moses, Paul, Buddha, Zoroaster, Socrates, St. Augustine, Luther, Montefiore, Channing, and Phillips Brooks. Very important analogies to the experience of Jesus Christ may be found in their singleness of aim, self-devotion of life, indifference to the merely sensuous, absorption in the spiritual and the eternal; but in certain very vital respects Jesus differs from all other religious leaders. His personality is unique.

I. In his recorded experiences there is no expression of any consciousness of sin; no repentance, no remorse, no regret for anything he had ever done or ever left undone. In all his reported words—and he talked with his intimate friends very freely of himself—there is nothing analogous to the General Confession of the Book of Common Prayer, to the Confessions of Augustine, to the cry of Paul, "What I would, that do I not; but what I hate, that do I;" to the calmer confession of John, "If we say that we have no sin, we deceive ourselves, and the truth is not in us." That there have been Perfectionists who claim to have attained sinlessness is true; but they are not numbered among the world's great religious leaders. They are counted great only in their self-conceit. The bitterest enemy, the most fastidious critic, would hardly accuse Jesus Christ of self-conceit. What impression he left on his immediate followers is indicated by one of Paul's letters, whose writings are the earliest transcript we possess of the life and faith of the early Church, and who says of his Master that he knew no sin.

II. As he was apparently without any experience of repentance, so also he was without any experience of aspiration. One finds in his recorded sayings nothing like the cravings of Buddha to escape from desire into oneness with God, or like the reported prayer of Moses, "I beseech thee, show me thy glory," or like the cry of Job, "O that I knew where I might find him," or like the breathless sob of the Psalmist, "As the hart panteth after the water brooks, so panteth my soul after thee, O God." Instead, we have a quiet resting, a sweet and calm content, in God; such utterances as, "I have glorified thee on the earth," "I and my Father are one," "O righteous Father, the world hath not known thee: but I have known thee." It is true that in the Pietists of Germany analogous expressions of rest in God may be found, but they are expressed as the result of previous struggle and pursuit, and they are rarely, if ever, the expressions of souls fully engaged, as Jesus Christ was, in the activities of a strenuous life. Universal affirmations are always hazardous. But think it is quite safe to say that in no other great religious leader is there to be found the absence of repentance for the past and

[1] The Significance of the Personality of Christ for the Minister of To-day. Three Addresses by the Rev. Ernest G. Guthrie, the Rev. Percy H. Epler, the Rev. Willard B. Thorp, D.D. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 75 cts.

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of aspiration for the future which characterizes all that we know of the experiences of Jesus Christ.

III. Not less noteworthy than this absence of repentance and aspiration is an entire absence of all doubting. Jesus Christ never strikes an uncertain or hesitating note. There are no ifs in his teaching. He offers to the world no hypotheses. Some of us accept as truth with unquestioning credence what religious authority hands down to us; others feel our way as explorers to the truth which we thus discover for ourselves. Jesus Christ paid no allegiance to tradition, and at times he put his teaching in flat contradiction to it: "It hath been said by them of old time . . . but I say unto you." He did not search for truth as men search for hidden treasure, and repeat to his disciples, as Paul did, the arguments by which he had stilled his own questionings; he spake with authority: "Neither be ye called Master, for one is your Master, even Christ." In all his teaching there is never a sign that he was sometimes, like Paul, "perplexed but not in despair." He never doubts himself, as Moses doubted: "O my Lord, I am not eloquent, neither heretofore, nor since thou hast spoken unto thy servant: but I am slow of speech, and of a slow tongue." He never doubts God's rule in the world, as the Psalmist doubted: "Verily I have cleansed my heart in vain, and washed my hands in innocency." He never doubts the eternal world that lies about him and before him, as Hezekiah did: "The grave cannot praise thee, death cannot celebrate thee: they that go down into the pit cannot hope for thy truth." Compare his confidence in himself in his first sermon in Nazareth: "The Spirit of the Lord God is upon me, because he hath anointed me to preach the Glad Tidings to the poor;" his confidence in God's ordering of the world: "Fear not, little flock; for it is your Father's good pleasure to give you the kingdom;" his confidence in the eternal world: "In my Father's house are many dwelling-places: I go to prepare a place for you."

IV. The influence of most religious leaders decreases as the irresistible tide of time sweeps men away from their graves. The influence of Jesus Christ is immeasurably greater to-day than it was in the first century; his teachings are better understood; his spirit is both more widely diffused and more spiritually powerful. It is possible that as many adherents bear the name of Buddha, perhaps as many the name of Confucius, as bear the name of Christ. But the religions of the Buddhists and of the Confucianists, with their temples, their idols, their dread of the gods, their sacrificial and expiatory systems, have little in common with the simple spiritual principles of Siddartha or the simple though voluminous ethical precepts of Confucius. It is true also that Christianity has taken on many forms, adopted many ceremonies, and taught many doctrines in the name of the Master which are wholly foreign to the Master's spirit. But it is also true that there has always been in Christian faith a power to cast off the corruptions which threatened to extinguish it. For centuries it seemed as though the legalism of the Roman Empire would be too strong for the free spirit of the Galilean, but in due time the bonds of Roman Imperialism were broken and an emancipated Gospel emerged in the Reformation. A hard theology incrusted Protestantism only to be broken in pieces by the Methodist Reformation. And now, in the Protestant world, the sectarian ecclesiasticisms which have grown up in the free atmosphere of our faith are gradually dissolving, and in the Roman Catholic Church a spirit of so-called Modernism, albeit it is at least as old as the Four Gospels, is reappearing despite all the efforts of the Vatican to exorcise it. Men may doubt whether Christ is still a living Personality acting in and through his Church; but there is no room to doubt the historic fact that there is in the influence of Christ a vitality, both intensive and extensive, which is without a parallel in human history.

V. This deathless influence, unique in the religious history of the world, is especially seen in three effects.

When Jesus Christ was born, the substantially universal method of worship in all religions was sacrifice. And this method was based upon a substantially

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universal belief that God or the gods were angry with men, and their wrath must be appeased by blood or there could be no forgiveness of sin, no reconciliation with the offended deity. Wherever Christianity has gone, that method has disappeared. The only relic of it left is the bloodless sacrifice of the mass in the Catholic churches and the doctrine of sacrificial atonement in the creeds of Protestant churches. And this method of sacrifice has disappeared, because the belief on which it was founded is disappearing. In spite of the opposition of the priesthood both Catholic and Protestant, reinforced by the spiritual inertia of mankind, the belief that men must offer sacrifice in order to win forgiveness from God is being replaced by the belief that God offers sacrifice in bestowing forgiveness upon man.

Out of this belief that God's forgiveness for the past is free and unpurchased has grown a new tendency in religion. Whereas all the force of pagan religion was expended in atoning for the past, and in directing men's thoughts to the problem how to escape from the just and reasonable consequences of their past misconduct, the force of the Christian religion, just in so far as it is Christian, is spent in assuring men that God will take care of the past and in bidding them turn their faces and their energies with hope toward the future. And this second result of Christ's unique influence is the secret of the fact that wherever the influence of Christ has gone there has gone also the spirit of progress.

And the goal of this progress has been him who has inspired it. Jesus of Nazareth was a Jewish peasant of the first century, living in a petty Roman province. But not only has the influence of his teachings been world-wide, but his personal character has become the ideal of humanity for all sorts and conditions of men. The soldier takes Havelock for his ideal, the politician Gladstone, the reformer Lincoln, the poet Browning, the lawyer Marshall, the scientist Lord Kelvin; but Jesus Christ has been the ideal alike for soldier, politician, reformer, poet, lawyer, and scientist; for the sixteenth century and the twentieth century, for the Occident and the Orient, for the believer and the unbeliever, for men and for women. The most charming picture of his life—though too romantic to be historical—is written by Renan, the unbeliever; the most spiritual, "The Oriental Christ," by Mozoomdar, the Oriental. And the crowd of socialistic Frenchmen jeer at the Christian Church and cheer at the name of Christ in the same hour and at the same meeting.

Skepticism may question the virgin birth and the miraculous resurrection, may deny the Church's definitions of Jesus Christ and of his relations to the Father, may find little to commend and much to criticise in the Church; but the impartial student can hardly question the fact that the experience of Jesus Christ, in so far as it is recorded, and the influence of Jesus Christ as we can trace it in history, have been unique in these respects: He was apparently without consciousness of sin, experience of aspiration, or spiritual perplexity and doubt; and his influence, increasing in extent and power so that it never was so great as it is to-day, has substituted for the fear of God a love of God, for a service of expiation a service of gladness and praise, and has given to the world an ideal of human character which it has never overtaken and which was never so universally reverenced as it is to-day. However like to other great religious leaders Jesus Christ may be, in these respects his personality is unique.

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RECENT VERSE: DRAMATIC AND LYRICAL

IN his latest poetic drama [1] d'Annunzio has ascended to a height which he has never attained before, and has justified the hope which many have entertained of his ultimate emancipation from his morbid interests, degenerate tendency, and passion for verbal ingenuities. His "Francesca da Rimini," although not faultless, had great dignity of phrase and of conception. Many of his dramas and some of his novels have dealt with repulsive themes in a brilliant but repulsive manner; and there has been about them an unwholesome atmosphere so pronounced and so constantly recurring that it has promised at times to consume his genius and to waste a really great poetic talent. From the very beginning he showed himself a master of diction, with a magical command of language at once musical, forceful, and vividly descriptive. There are passages in his prose works which in vividness of presentation and power of dilating the imagination, not only by what they convey but by what they suggest, are unsurpassed in recent literature. But this facility and felicity, for it is both, sometimes gives the impression of word-hunting, more intent on finding a curious, unusual, or iridescent word than on adequately and sincerely conveying an idea.

"The Daughter of Jorio" is a work of an entirely different kind. It has something of the majesty of a classical drama and of the inexorableness of fate. It deals with the primitive people of the Abruzzi, and is saturated with primitive feeling, tradition, habit, and superstition. One feels the presence behind the Christian rites of ancient pagan faiths, and has a vision of old shrines crumbling into the ground and become part of the soil. The theme is one of the greatest in literature—to show, in the words of Miss Porter in the preface, "the perennial relations of a predestined love to art and aspiration, and of all these to social life, which sacrifices all these when it wists not what it does." Or, to put the matter more plainly, it is the old tragedy of the assertion of the right of the individual to follow his heart rather than the traditions of his family or his clan. This ancient collision, which is the root of so many tragedies, is worked out with wonderful force and freshness; and the tragedy moves from a very simple setting in a rustic Italian home to the ultimate of perfect self-sacrifice. The translation by Miss Charlotte Porter, with the collaboration of Pietro Isola and Alice Henry, reproduces for English ears "by similarly free methods in freely stressed English verse, an audible impression corresponding to the impression which the stresses of the Italian verse have made on my ear as they were spoken." This was a difficult task, and the translation shows at times the strain of the hazardous experiment, but the play is wonderfully reproduced in English. The long introduction shows the range and thoroughness of Miss Porter's literary scholarship.

Mr. Stephen Phillips's later work has not fulfilled the promise of his earlier verse. It continues to be graceful, flowing, and not devoid of happy glimpses and fortunate phrasing, but it does not gain in strength. Since the appearance of "Paola and Francesca" there has been no advance. The new volume [1] recently issued is made up chiefly of lyrics, with one short poetic drama. The several lyrics presented in the book are fluent and musical, but they will hardly advance Mr. Phillips's reputation, though there are happy lines in "Endymion," which is felicitous but lacks vigor and originality. It is a dangerous theme to touch, and Mr. Phillips's hand was not strong enough for the task. The poem lacks simplicity and a certain sincerity, and the diction is too often poetical in the academic sense, as these lines will show:

"But when the orb was dropping in the cold,
And faintness came upon the fields, and birds

[1] The Daughter of Jorio. By Gabriele d'Annunzio. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.50.

[1] New Poems. By Stephen Phillips. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.25.

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Ceased in the thickets one by one, he penned
His sheep secure; until the Summer Moon
On the horizon burned a forest green,
Lighting, as in a temple, fiery aisles."

Mr. Phillips had a great subject in "Midnight, December 31, 1900." It is not given to every poet to stand on the watershed between two centuries and be able at the same moment to illuminate the future by the past, and to penetrate by the power of the imagination to those inner connections which bind the centuries together. There are good lines in Mr. Phillips's poem, but there is very little uplift or vision, and sometimes his verse drops to a level of commonplace prose, as in these lines:

"And the Teuton Emperor then, and the
Gaul and the Briton,
Shall cease from impossible war."

This is almost as bad as the famous line from Wordsworth, "A Mr. Wilkinson, a clergyman." There are some stanzas, on the other hand, in the poem on the death of Gladstone which strike fire and betray a deep feeling and a convincing sincerity. Such a stanza as this, for instance, will linger long in the memory:

"The saint and poet dwell apart; but thou
Wast holy in the furious press of men,
And choral in the central rush of life,
Yet didst thou love old branches and a book
And Roman verses on an English lawn."

In the poetic drama which closes the book, "Iole, a Tragedy in One Act," Mr. Phillips shows his old-time ease and grace. He handles his materials without effort; and while the play is essentially lyrical rather than dramatic, it does not fall below the exactions of a very striking situation, and it strikes a fine note in Iole's sacrificial speech to her father at the close.

The list of books by Mr. Riley which prefaces this volume stretches over an entire page, and bears abundant witness to the fruitfulness of his muse. From the beginning he has been a poet of childhood, of home life, of local humor, and of the atmosphere and landscape of the Central West. More than once, with nice instinct, he has touched the heart of the themes with which he dealt. His work is very uneven; it is often commonplace; at other times it comes near the sources of humor and pathos. This volume[1] contains many pieces in familiar veins—some admirable, some uninteresting. It will not add to Mr. Riley's reputation, nor will it detract from it. It shows that his poetic impulse is still in full vigor, and that he has changed neither his style nor his interest. A single poem will bring out the intimacy of his touch on dear familiar things:

AN EMPTY NEST

I find an old deserted nest,
Half-hidden in the underbrush:
A withered leaf, in phantom jest,
Has nestled in it like a thrush
With weary, palpitating breast.

I muse as one in sad surprise
Who seeks his childhood's home once more,
And finds in it a strange disguise
Of vacant rooms and naked floor,
With sudden teardrops in his eyes.

An empty nest! It used to bear
A happy burden, when the breeze
Of summer rocked it, and a pair
Of merry tattlers told the trees
What treasures they had hidden there.

But Fancy, flitting through the gleams
Of youth's sunshiny atmosphere,
Has fallen in the past, and seems,
Like this poor leaflet nestled here,—
A phantom guest of empty dreams.

A high ethical note runs through Mr. Gilder's work, and loses none of its resonance as successive small books of song come from his hand. The latest of these, "The Fire Divine,"[2] shows no ebbing of an inspiration which has kept him true not only to the poet's function but to the poet's vision. It is interesting to note in this volume the abiding spell which music always lays on his gift of song, and which has given impulse and beauty to some of his most memorable work. In this volume he also continues his experiments with relaxed meters; not always with success. The bent of his thought as well as the freshness and sincerity of his work is disclosed in this suggestive vision of the unbroken life:

THE OLD FAITH

On that old faith I will take hold once more—
Now that the long waves bear me to the shore

[1] Morning. By James Whitcomb Riley. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.25.
[2] The Fire Divine. By Richard Watson Gilder. The Century Company, New York. $1.

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And life's brief voyage is o'er;
Near is the looked-for land,—
One wild leap on the strand
And the dear souls I loved of old
I shall again behold,
And arms that held me once, shall hold again.
In blinding ways of men
Long did I mourning doubt,
Saying—"Into the universe have they gone out
And shall be lost
In the wide waves of unseen, infinite force;
For nature heeds not all the bitter cost
But rushes on its course
Unto the far, determined goal,
Without self-conscious knowledge, or remorse."
But now the time is come, the test draws near,
And sudden my soul is innocent of fear.
O ye beloved! I come! I cry
With the old passion ye shall not deny!
I know you, as I knew
When life was in its dew;
Ah, nought of me has suffered inward change,
Nor can be change essential even in you,
However far the freer spirit's range.
Soul shall find soul; there is no distance
That bars love's brave insistence,
And nothing truly dies
In all the infinite realm of woe and weal;
Throughout creation's bound thrill answers thrill
And love to love replies.

Comment on Current Books

The Philosophy of Common Sense

One of these books might be called a second edition almost as truly as the other. For Frederic Harrison's volume,[1] though not before published as a volume, is composed of essays published in different periodicals at different times. It therefore lacks the coherence which the other volume[2] possesses. Both are very lucid, and Frederic Harrison is sometimes even entertaining; and both secure their lucidity by basing all their reasoning on an assumption which we believe to be false, in substance if not in form. That assumption is that mental and moral phenomena are so like material phenomena that they may be studied by the same methods and from the study a substantially analogous system may be educed. This assumption is thus stated by Frederic Harrison: "Let Science come to see that Religion, morality, life, are within its field, or rather are the main part of its field. Let Religion come to see that it can be nothing but a prolongation of Science, a rational and homogeneous result of cosmology and biology." It is thus stated by Leslie Stephen: "There is, in truth, only one kind of knowledge; and knowledge gradually passes into the scientific state as it becomes more definite and articulate." For all practical purposes of inquiry this assumption is false. The domain of the spiritual and the domain of the material are so far different that, with any knowledge which we at present possess concerning them, we cannot argue from one to the other nor depend upon the same methods of research in studying their respective phenomena. We can tell by a thermometer exactly how much heat will cause water to boil at any specified point on the earth's surface. There is no gauge which will tell us what amount of wisely expressed passion in Mark Antony will make the Roman populace boil with wrath. Whether we believe that the will is absolutely free, that is, that it possesses a creative energy, that it produces a moral force as radium was once thought to possess a creative physical force, or whether we believe with the Determinists that it is like a balance and always goes according to the strongest motive, its action is so apparently superior to and sometimes so independent of any circumstance which can be perceived or reckoned with, that its operations cannot be apprehended as those of a mechanically operated balance. Whether the difference between the material and the spiritual is a difference in kind or only a difference in degree, the difference in degree, if so it be, is so great as to become for all practicable purposes a difference in kind. In our judgment, the philosophy of Positivism secures simplicity by shutting out from its laboratory the most important phenomena of life—the spiritual hopes and fears, regrets and aspirations, loves and hates, of mankind, though Frederic Harrison vigorously affirms the contrary. The apparent gain in simplicity is not worth what it costs. The student of Positivist philosophy will find in these volumes an interesting exposition of that philosophy; in Frederic Harrison's an exposition more fragmentary but more readable, in Leslie Stephen's an exposition more comprehensive and coherent but requiring more concentrated attention. But, whatever intellectual satisfaction the reader may find in them, if he is a being with emotional experiences he will find those experiences largely unaccounted for and almost wholly unsatisfied.

[1] The Philosophy of Common Sense. By Frederic Harrison. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.75, net.
[2] The Science of Ethics. By Leslie Stephen. Second Edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.50, net.

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Queen Victoria's Reign

Covering practically the same period as Mr. Herbert Paul's "History of Modern England," the twelfth volume of the Hunt-Lane serial history of England is not unlike Mr. Paul's work in style and method.[1] It is far more readable than most of its predecessors in this co-operative history, and, especially in the opening chapters, is refreshingly free from the pronounced Tory bias that marred several of the earlier volumes. It shows, too, a proper appreciation of the necessity of emphasizing social and economic conditions in rendering an adequate account of the political happenings of the long reign with which it is concerned. But it has certain conspicuous defects. Altogether too much legislative history is crowded into its pages. There is at times a noticeable lack of the sense of proportion—as shown, for example, by the undue space devoted to the Irish question. Its authors are occasionally swept off their feet, so to speak, by their enthusiasm for advocates of "imperialist" policies. And, finally, something less than justice is done certain historic personages—notably Cobden, Bright, Disraeli, and Gladstone, the last of whom is described as "conservative in intellect, in temperament opportunist," and as being animated by a "keen delight in the parliamentary game." Against all this, however, the volume possesses many commendable and useful features, particularly in that portion dealing with the first half of Queen Victoria's reign. Emphasizing, as has been said, social and economic conditions, it makes plain the causes of the great reform movements of the thirties and forties. It deals far more justly with Peel and Palmerston than is usually the case. It draws a vivid and convincing picture of the long struggle that preceded the adoption of the policy of free trade. And in following the shifts and turns of party politics it is sound and luminous.

Henry James's Collected Works

The publication of the first collected edition of the novels and tales of Henry James,[2] in twenty-three volumes, is an event of unusual interest. It was highly characteristic of Mr. James that he desired to leave his work in a form entirely satisfactory to himself. For this reason the new edition will include all his fiction which he desires to preserve. It is much to be hoped that it will also present the many essays, impressions of travel, and miscellaneous articles in which his rare power of analysis, closeness of observation, and charm of style are seen at their best. Each one of the long stories in this edition is to be prefaced by an introduction. The initial volumes contain "Roderick Hudson" and "The American," two of the best stories that have come from Mr. James's hand, which belong to the small group of his works likely to be remembered. To these books he has prefaced essays of very considerable length and of characteristic thoroughness, which are really chapters in autobiography. He describes the influences which led him to write each story, and the experiences which befell him in the writing. He characterizes his handling of the plot and the workmanship, he shows much of the joy of re-reading the discretions and indiscretions of his early youth—that youth of such rare promise—and he takes a thoroughly characteristic delight in pointing out his mistakes. These introductions are likely to form a very interesting contribution to American literary history, so far as they touch one of the most significant figures in our fiction. The announcement that the stories, and especially the earlier ones, have been thoroughly revised and purged of what Mr. James calls crudity will distress some of his most loyal readers, who regard the younger James as a much more accomplished artist and a much less psychology-ridden novelist than the author of "The Golden Bowl." A first reading does not bring to light any notable departures from the earlier text; but a careful examination may justify the fears of those who love Mr. James wisely but not too well.

The Elizabethan Religious Settlement

The proceedings which resulted in the final establishment of the Church of England in independence of the Church of Rome are reviewed in this careful exhibit of historical authorities by a Roman Catholic English priest.[1] He has digested a huge mass of contemporary manuscript papers and documents, and has collated them with the statements of preceding writers on his subject. The evidence thus collected by no means confirms the late Bishop Creighton's statement that the religious settlement of 1559 "was welcomed by the people, and corresponded to their wishes." The Lower House of Parliament, if Hume may be trusted rather than Maitland in the recent Cambridge Modern History (Volume 2), was packed for the purpose; and in the Upper House, although many of the bishops' seats were left vacant, the bill secured a majority

[1] Political History of England. Edited by William Hunt, D.Litt., and Reginald L. Poole, M.A. In 12 vols. Vol. XII. The History of England During the Reign of Victoria (1837–1901). By Sidney Low, M.A., and Lloyd C. Sanders, B.A. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. $2.60, net.

[2] The Novels and Tales of Henry James. In 23 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $46 for the set.

[1] The Elizabethan Religious Settlement. By Henry Norbert Birt, O.S.B. The Macmillan Company, New York. $4.50, net.

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of only three, even with the pressure of self-interest. The author's case seems to be well made out, although his comment, "By law, by decree of the legislature, the Real Presence in the Blessed Sacrament was denied to the Faithful," may be passed by as a pious opinion. More noteworthy and reasonable is his remark that the Act of Uniformity "renders the Established Church hide-bound." Why the Church of Rome from that day to this persistently denies the validity of Holy Orders in the Church of England appears in the detailed account given of the consecration of Parker as Archbishop of Canterbury in 1559. The royal mandate empowered as consecrators ecclesiastics who were not canonically competent; ordination by laic authority could not "confer such purely spiritual powers." The author's dating of the existence of the Anglican Church from the sixteenth century involves the impossible proposition that a break with the Papacy is a break of historical continuity with the Church of the first century. But his historical treatment of the Elizabethan Settlement must be reckoned with by all careful investigators of that period.

Theodore Parker

This centenary edition[1] of the works—not all of them hitherto published—of this great prophet of religious liberation is both valuable and well deserved. He fought a good fight for the rights of the individual conscience against ecclesiasticism, and for the rights of humanity against oppressors. He discerned more clearly than his contemporaries the great truths of Christianity now coming to due recognition—the immanence of God in man, and its corollary, a divine incarnation in the human race. These volumes, often reflecting the conditions dominant in his time, afford in contrasts with the conditions of our time instructive historical disclosures of the progress made in sixty years by theology and ethics. Strange that fellow-Christians should have stigmatized as "infidel" a preacher who said, "What delight have I in my consciousness of God, the certainty of his protection, his infinite love!" who said of Jesus, "Rarely, almost never, do we see the vast divinity within that soul, which, new though it was in the flesh, at one step goes before the world whole thousands of years; judges the race; decides for us questions we dare not agitate as yet, and breathes the very breath of heavenly love." The lesson is still in point, for even now the literalism which proscribed Parker struggles, though in diminished force, against the man of the spirit who discards its shibboleth. Parker's limitations as well as his leadership appear in these volumes; learning and critical knowledge have advanced since he passed away; scholars would not now say that Jesus taught that endless misery is the future state of the wicked. Nor was he, with his broad and tender human sympathy, always charitable or just toward his antagonists in the heat of his long fight for truth and right against tremendous odds. His "Discourses on Religion" occupy two of these volumes; the third, taking its title from its introductory essay on "The American Scholar," contains reprints of the more valuable of his contributions to periodical literature. The editors, Thomas Wentworth Higginson and George Willis Cooke, have supplied the reader with the needful historical notes on incidents and allusions in the text.

[1] The Works of Theodore Parker. (Centenary Edition.) Vol. I. A Discourse of Matters Pertaining to Religion. Edited by Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Vol. II. The World of Matter and the Spirit of Man. Edited by George Willis Cooke. Vol. III. The American Scholar. Edited by George Willis Cooke. The American Unitarian Association, Boston. Per vol., $1, net.

Hymns and Hymn Writers

This is a much larger volume,[1] and more copiously illustrated, than others like it of which notices have appeared in our book columns. This is mainly because of the greater fullness of most of its biographical sketches. While its material is not sought outside of the choice hymnal of the Protestant Episcopal Church, this is sufficiently representative of the Church, ancient and modern, in the service of sacred song, in which all sectarian distinctions are ignored. The arrangement of material drawn from different times and lands seems rather fortuitous, but this is negligible in a volume which may be opened at one page or another with equal interest and profit.

The Works of Donald G. Mitchell

This very handsome edition in fifteen volumes[2] has been completed by the publication of "English Lands, Letters, and Kings" in one volume, and "American Lands and Letters" in two volumes. The books are admirably made, dignified, simple, comfortable in the hands, and very comfortable for the eye; and they contain a body of writing, somewhat old-fashioned, full of the atmosphere of a day when it was a tradition that literature should have charm, and the man of letters a personality ripened by contact with the very best and not too freely exposed to the influences of his own time.

[1] Some Hymns and Hymn Writers. By William Budd Bodine, D.D. The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia. $3, net.

[2] The Works of Donald G. Mitchell ("Ik Marvel"). With Introduction by the Author. In 15 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. Per vol., $1.50.

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Letters to The Outlook

MORE REPLIES TO MR. BURROUGHS[1]

I.—THE UNREASONABLE COW

As one interested in animals, I have watched with interest the "nature faker" controversy. I am inclined to think that were he riding line on a string of cows in a country of bad mud-holes, Mr. Long would question the sanity of the range cow that immediately on being pulled from the depths of a gumbo bog hole turns upon the faithful cow horse or team that has worked her deliverance, and, after goring it or them, if her attempt be successful, is quite apt to jump back into the self-same hole. Almost every range man has seen this from the corner of his eye while hasting with more speed than grace to remount after unroping the cow. I know a cow that was pulled from the same hole four times in one day; then, wearying of the sport, the boys tied her up to a stake.

I have seen cattle attempt to drink at holes where the carcasses of former victims of the mud showed plainly above the mud and slime, and begin their struggles for liberty only upon finding the water too bad to drink, and this where, a little farther on, they could find plenty of living water and good hard bottom.

Range horses once located on a range will seriously interest the unlucky rider upon whom falls the task of teaching them to consider some other range home. Their sense of direction is unerring. But suppose the new range be north of the old, with a drift fence on the east, south, and west, then the man in charge will spend a large portion of his time on the shady side of the ranch house rolling cigarettes and wondering why the "broncs" don't go around the end of the fence.

I know a horse that was turned from his regular road to town because his rider wished to look at a piece of paper that lay a short distance from the road. On the return trip, after dark, this horse left the road and retraced the trail he had made around the paper in the morning. Strange as it may seem, his rider liked him better for this bit of "reasoning."

HERBERT B. LYMAN.

Le Beau, South Dakota.

II.—ANIMALS RESIST TEMPTATION

Mr. John Burroughs's instances in which animals, "these my kindred," as Shelley calls them, follow their instincts foolishly and unreasoningly do not prove, they hardly tend to prove, that animals do not reason, because they are wholly in accord with the other theory that the actions of both men and animals are governed jointly by instinct and reason, with the sole difference that reason has incomparably greater weight with man than with the beasts. The animal's obedience to instinct in defiance of reason is simply far more extreme and common than man's. Man, too, often follows his instincts against his own interest, as when he yields to his passions, or indeed to temptation in general, and senselessly when he acts without thinking. But when animals resist temptation, as the well-trained ones so often do, are they not obeying reason and defying instinct? It is of little moment to show that animals sometimes do not reason, or indeed that they often or even usually do not; it is necessary to prove that they never do. But this, like most negatives, is hard to prove to those disposed to question it. The theory that animals cannot reason is open to the gravest suspicion of interest, in that it facilitates the belief in immortality by disposing of their claims to it through asserting this difference in kind between us and them.

HENRY M. HOWE.

Columbia University, in the City of New York.

III.—THE NAUTILUS AND THE NATURALIST

It was with much interest that I read the article on "The Reasonable but Unreasoning Animals," by Mr. John Burroughs. While I have not had time as yet to digest the logic of the article, there was one point of fact which has precipitated me into deepest quandary. I have always read Mr. Burroughs's writings with respect and reverence, as well as with delight, and have been inclined to accept his word as law in natural history. But in the article mentioned Mr. Burroughs speaks of the nautilus spreading her sails long before the first seaman spread his; moreover, the reference leaves the impression that the author would have us believe that the argonaut uses the appendages of its hinder arms as a means of navigating the ocean. Now, I have been led to believe, from a rather careful study of the more recent natural histories, that the Argonauta Argo inhabits the deeper waters of the continental shelves, seldom coming to the surface, and that stories of its sailing were of the fairy variety. Yet it is not my purpose to accuse Mr. Burroughs of "nature faking," for these stories existed long before that much-abused term was coined.

[1] See Mr. Burroughs's article in The Outlook for December 14, and previous replies in the issues for January 4 and 11.—THE EDITORS.

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However, is Mr. Burroughs correct in giving the impression? Is it a fact that the nautilus does so use its appendages, and may I believe the beautiful stories about this animal? The writer would be glad to learn that the stories are true, both because of the added interest it would give to his teaching of the Cephalopoda, and also because it would relieve his mind of any impression, ever so slight, that Mr. Burroughs has deserted to the ranks of the "nature fakers."

C. W. L.

East Providence, Rhode Island.

UNITY, FRATERNITY, DEMOCRACY

The historic hall of Cooper Union offered on a recent Sunday night an unusual spectacle. In the anteroom and the passageways there was a whir of young girls' voices, a glance of white dresses, bright eyes, gay colored sashes. A procession was forming. A few notes struck on the piano and the white regiment entered the crowded hall marching two by two, in front the color-bearers, the standard a large American flag, deep-bordered with white, emblem of Peace. Children's voices, fresh as morning breezes, went with their message of cheer through the hall, singing John Addington Symonds's hymn to Democracy:

"These things shall be! A loftier race
Than e'er the world hath known shall rise,
With flame of freedom in their souls
And light of knowledge in their eyes."

A little later in the evening some twenty young girls, leaving their comrades, went upon the platform and received from the Chairman each a diploma testifying that the Club of which they were members had reached its second birthday. On one side of the diploma stood two words, Unity and Fraternity. These, with a third not engraved thereon, Democracy, have furnished the standards for the guidance of the People's Institute from its beginning.

At no time, probably, in the history of the city has there gathered continuously for a period of years an audience so large and so incongruous as that which assembles four times weekly from November to May under the ægis of The Institute in the Cooper Union Hall. Men and women of all social and religious faiths, as well as of all the various nationalities that make up our cosmopolitan complex, are present. Yet no constant attendant at these gatherings can fail to be impressed with the sense of comradeship that pervades the multitude. All manifestly feel themselves to be integral parts of one whole.

The principle of unity underlies all apparent divisions in life. Men of diverse religious faiths, searching each into the fundamentals of his own faith, discover an underlying basis common to all. The mandates of all creeds can be summed up in "Loyal service to the Power that makes for righteousness." Similarly, all social creeds find their unity in the acceptance of the doctrine of human solidarity, brotherhood.

The People's Institute, by placing emphasis upon this Unity underlying all surface differences in social and religious creeds, has welded gradually the most heterogeneous elements into a close and conscious kinship. Similarly, by pointing out that at the heart of every social striving lies the recognition of and reaching out after Fraternity, it has educated individualist and socialist, conservative and radical, into fellowship in effort to realize a higher social state.

The third principle, Democracy, intelligently interpreted, means that man as man the world over is ultimately to become able to govern himself, and that the best preparation for self-government is exercise therein. Faith in democracy as it exists now and here means simply faith in the essential integrity of the People's desires and the rightness of its calm judgment. The various elements that gather in the People's Institute hall are accepted as representing, in their union, the consensus of thought of the plain people of our city. Full reliance has been placed upon the sanity and righteousness of their judgment when properly enlightened and calmly expressed. Thus to enlighten and guide is the province of the Institute. And the years of experience have furnished no reason for rejecting such a theory of action. It is this entire faith in the people, entire willingness to work with and through them, that has bound to the Institute in ties of trust and affection all the different sections of the people, and given it in turn its strength. Through its trust in the people and their trust in it, it has become their tribunate, their mouthpiece.

Democracy, Unity, Fraternity, are not merely good working principles, but each is one of the keys that unlocks the future. We shall not always be as separate as now in our religious faiths. For an increasing multitude the dividing walls between church and church are crumbling away, and the vision of a future when, though divided in unessentials, even physically separated, all men shall in spirit worship together, is becoming ever clearer. Similarly, individualist and collectivist, through mutual recognition and concession, will constantly draw nearer to full fellowship in action. And what student of social conditions can doubt that the recognition of human interdependence, the rebuild-

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ing of society in accord with the demands of solidarity, is no longer far away? As to democracy, it is only a question of man's education. True democracy will come when the race is qualified, mentally and morally, therefor.

So that, in the People's Institute work, there are living principles which have proved entirely practical in their application, enabling the leaders to unite for the common welfare men of the most diverse faiths; principles which lead also to the vision of that larger, richer future of universal fellowship that cannot any longer be scoffed at as a mere dream, but increasingly becomes recognized as the logical, inevitable outcome of social evolution.

CHARLES SPRAGUE SMITH.

New York City.

A LAST WORD BY PROFESSOR VERNON

It is most refreshing for a theologian to discover that he differs from the editor of The Outlook not so much in Theology as in English. And since you have added to the honor of sympathetic comment upon my recent address before the National Council the courteous suggestion of a further explanatory word from me, I am glad to have the opportunity of explaining myself upon a minor but important matter.

After expressing a doubt as to my understanding of the word "atonement" The Outlook says: "It appears to us that Christ clearly teaches, as in the parable of the Prodigal Son, the doctrine that for the child who has separated himself from his Father by sin there is possible reconciliation, and that such reconciliation involves repentance and sorrow for sin on the part of the child and compassion or sorrow for sin on the part of God. We wish that Professor Vernon had more explicitly recognized this truth."

The statement of my address is as follows: "It would appear that in the eyes of Jesus there is no such thing as an atonement for sin. So far from regarding himself to be good enough to pay the price of others' sins, he refused to be considered as good at all. Sins cannot be atoned for: they may, however, be forgiven by the fathomless love of God."

It seems to me perfectly patent that the word atonement in these sentences is used in the sense of "equivalent," and that I have indicated clearly the possibility and basis of our reconciliation with God.

As to my right to use the word atonement in this sense opinions, like dictionaries, will differ. Webster defines it in my sense, "Satisfaction made by giving an equivalent for an injury," holding the theologian also to the every-day understanding of the word. The Century, which The Outlook follows, while indicating that in ordinary usage the meaning reconciliation is obsolete, allows it to the theologians on the basis of the life, death, and sufferings of Christ. If The Outlook will pardon me, I should like to call attention to the fact that its own interpretation of Christ's teaching on this subject, which it draws from the parable of the Prodigal Son, does not abide by the last two-thirds of the definition of the word atonement which itself approves. But the point which I would like to make is that we theologians ought not to use simple English words in technical senses. The Century Dictionary well says: "Different systems of theology explain differently the methods of reconciliation, and therefore use the word atonement with different meanings." It seems to me that a word loses its usefulness which carries as many connotations with it as there are theologies. However the word be meant, it is impossible to divest it of a commercial or at the best a legal flavor. The relation of the Christian with God is on quite another footing. "Like as a *father pitieth* his *children*, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him." And certainly it seems to me that unless atonement means the same thing to the theologians and non-theologians, unless we can really make its meaning definite, we should abandon it altogether. I really see no reason why we should use it when we mean reconciliation. I dwell thus upon the matter because I believe that the Church is making a serious mistake in attempting to pour new wine into old bottles, particularly when the bottles were brought out some time at least after the death of Jesus.

Apparently a more vital matter is the difference between The Outlook and myself on our definition of the Gospel. But here again the difference lies in the use of English. I agree unequivocally with The Outlook and with the Apostle that the Gospel is the power of God unto salvation; did I not think so, I would not have given my life to its proclamation. I believe with The Outlook that Jesus came to give life and to give it more abundantly, and that we are all living upon that life to-day. I differ with The Outlook only in the belief that these phrases constitute "a definition of the Gospel." May I again quote the full sentence from my address from which The Outlook seems to draw the conclusion that I hold the Gospel to be "a brooding spirit of love"? "In order to uplift men, Christ depended upon one *double* fact whose discovery constituted his Gos-

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pel, namely, this: that God is the Spirit of Love, brooding alike over the righteous and unrighteous, *and* that the chief end of our life is to allow ourselves, in childlike trust, to be ruled to the uttermost by that same spirit of Love. . . . In the eyes of Jesus the highest communion with God is not adoration of His will, but reverent performance of it."

I know that the adjective "brooding" in the statement is unsatisfactory. I wish I knew a better one. But that which makes the Gospel a power unto salvation, that which makes the life of Jesus a more abundant life than the world had known, is the acceptance of this discovery of Jesus as the ruling principle of life.

A. W. VERNON.

THE CHILDREN OF THE LIGHT-HOUSES

Along the 2,486 miles of the coast of Maine are seventy-five light stations, the home of over four hundred people in Government employ. Some are situated on bleak headlands, others on isolated islands, and a few at the entrances of harbors near cities and villages. Among the families of the coast the light-keepers are far above the average. This may be due partly to the daily routine of work, partly to the regular and systematic inspection of the Government, but mostly to the inherent desire to do the best for themselves and their families. If it were not for the opportunity of fishing, lobstering, boat-building, and such employments that the keepers avail themselves of, they could not support their families on the salaries paid by the Government. The Light Service is, however, well planned, and is one of the greatest blessings to those who must pass along our rugged coast.

At these stations are 159 children, more than one hundred of them of school age, who are growing up without school privileges, some of them in lamentable ignorance. This condition was brought to the attention of the State Superintendent of Public Schools. He informs me that the only way in which the State can aid these children is to grant free tuition in the nearest public school. As the children are usually too young to be separated from home, this gives very little help. The State sustains one school on Duck Islands, with a term of twenty weeks for the ten pupils, and a few of the towns provide board for the children from the light stations. The tendency of the State is not to continue even this little aid. The officials feel that the National Government, in sending families to such places, has some obligation towards their education.

The matter was brought to the attention of Congressman Charles E. Littlefield, who in reply writes:

"I note what you say in relation to the school privileges of the children of the lighthouse-keepers, and fully appreciate the great embarrassment attending the situation. I have already taken the matter up on several occasions with the Lighthouse Department, but they decline to assume any responsibility as to the education of the children under the circumstances. I have been over the matter with them fully, and do not think there is any probability of getting any result in the direction of school privileges for the children of the lighthouse-keepers.

"Your suggestion that the light-keepers be changed from time to time, the younger men being placed on the outer stations and as soon as their families come of school age they be given stations near a school or else provided with a teacher, seems to me to be a possible solution of the situation, and I am forwarding your letter to the Department, suggesting that your plan be adopted and asking their suggestions in relation thereto."

In reply to Mr. Littlefield's letter, Rear-Admiral George C. Reiter, Chairman of the Lighthouse Board, says:

"I beg to say that the condition referred to in the Lighthouse Service is inevitable, has always existed and always will exist, but I am fully satisfied that the inspectors take this into consideration and do all they can to remedy it.

"I do not see that it is possible for the Lighthouse Board to do anything more.

"It is most difficult to maintain the Lighthouse Establishment in proper condition on the amounts appropriated by Congress, and for what we get, the officers of the Lighthouse Board have to put up a strenuous fight, so that any improvement of the condition referred to by Mr. MacDonald can only be made by specific appropriations of money by Congress for that purpose."

There ought to be some way to meet the needs of these one hundred children at once. If this condition always has existed, it is no reason that it should be continued, when some of the best families of our country are deprived of proper educational advantages. Besides, the best persons to take care of the lights along the coast are the boys and girls born on these lonely stations, who grow up to sturdy manhood and womanhood battling with the elements. All they ask is a fair chance, the right of every American boy and girl to an education.

ALEXANDER P. MACDONALD,
Coast Missionary.
The Maine Sea Coast Missionary Society,
Bar Harbor, Maine.

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